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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT



KEEPING UP WITH THE JUNIOR JONESES

PARENTS can keep up intellectually with their children, and the schools can help them do it. This is the tenor of a suggestion made by John S. Diekhoff, director of the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, in the November issue of the *National Parent-Teacher*. Entitling his article, "Keeping Pace with Youth," Diekhoff begins by citing the familiar fact that many parents "take" various subjects for a second time when their children take them and demand help at home. If the subject matter and its mode of presentation have not changed too much in the intervening years, the interested parent can often rise to the occasion, at least after he has time to brush up his knowledge and get his hand in again.

But some parents find their offspring progressing to an educational level beyond that which they themselves attained. Others find their

knowledge hopelessly rusty or discover that they have failed to keep up with books and concepts new since their own school days. In any event, the result of curriculum reorganization has often been that new subjects have been introduced or old subjects are studied in new groupings or presented in new ways. For these and other reasons, many parents find it difficult to keep in touch with their children's intellectual development and to keep abreast of it. Many of them would probably like help in doing so.

Diekhoff appreciates that all this is not so simple as it sounds. He is well aware of the adolescents' need to break away from their families and to achieve individual status as young adults. As he says, "Keeping up with maturing youth is sometimes a standby operation . . . in which parents get no help from their sons and daughters." Diekhoff realizes that a young person may regard his parents' interest in him and his concerns as an in-

trusion into his privacy. But perhaps, as Diekhoff suggests, "The youth who goes away from his parents in this sense will come home again, if they will welcome him and are ready for him."

The schools can help in preparing for this homecoming. Diekhoff is not doctrinaire concerning how this help is best given parents. Reading lists, classes, or discussion groups for parents, possibly even occasional classes for parents and students, are among the possibilities. The nature of local school programs and of local circumstances should undoubtedly decide the actual techniques to be adopted by any school or system.

Whatever the precise plan used, the general idea seems to have much to recommend it from the point of view of both school and parents. Most schools are eager to serve their communities. This suggestion points to a field of service in which the school can function more adequately and more properly than is the case with many spheres of activity suggested to it. Then, too, there seem few better ways of communicating to parents a sympathetic and intelligent understanding of what the school is trying to do. The result of such homework by parents should be a more profound insight into modern education than they can possibly obtain through parents' meetings, news letters, and similar techniques. For example, parents who have in some manner actually worked through a school's social-studies

course should be free from any misconceptions that this subject is merely a frilly substitute for the sturdy current-events or civics classes of their own day, that the material is subversive or the teacher a Communist, or that students never have to do any work nowadays.

The communication can also be two-way. The school which wants from its constituency intelligent criticism of its curriculum seems most likely to get that kind of criticism if the constituency works through the curriculum carefully at first hand.

Some parents would now certainly welcome help in keeping pace intellectually with their children, and probably more would become interested once programs of this general sort became available and publicized. But beyond any utility which these courses have for their immediate purpose of enabling parents to grow intellectually along with their children, they offer interesting possibilities for giving parents a general education.

Too often, present attempts to enable adults to secure or extend their general education suffer from vagueness of aim on the part of the adult student. He wants "to keep up with things," "to be intelligent and well informed," "to keep from getting stale," "to get out of the rut," or to accomplish other equally meritorious but equally vague purposes. As a result, he may drift from course to course, with no clear aim, no clear program, and no strong feeling that he is getting what

he wants. Then, too, often being mixed in classes with younger students who have no family responsibilities, he frequently finds the competition difficult because his motivation is less intense, his study habits more deteriorated, or his personal life more complicated.

The kind of program Diekhoff suggests might obviate some of these difficulties. The motivation would be fairly clear and immediate. The parent would be working with others of his kind. He would be taking what is presumably a well-organized program, since it would be the regular curriculum of the school. He would probably be "returning to school" at an educational level lower than his previous schooling rather than at a higher one, as is normally the case. Under these circumstances, the intellectual effort might well be easier and more rewarding. Thus, even if the anticipated result of intellectual companionship with his children did not eventuate, the parent might find that he benefited from the experience in other ways. He might, for example, have developed new capacities for that time when the children have grown up and parents face the vacuum of being left to lead their own lives.

There are problems and difficulties, of course, in getting such programs started and in keeping them going. But the idea seems to merit trial in a number of different situations and with different procedures.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES ON THE MARCH AGAIN

THE PLACE of modern foreign languages in the high-school and even in the elementary-school curriculum promises to be a lively issue during the next few years. This prediction may come as a surprise to some school men who have felt that the study of foreign languages was dead and merely didn't know enough to lie down.

The latest rejuvenating shot was administered by Earl J. McGrath, United States commissioner of education, in an address last May to the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association. In this talk, entitled "Language-Study and World Affairs" (*Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI [May, 1952], 205-9), McGrath essentially confesses his past sins and those of other educators in giving too little attention to the study of foreign languages in the face of the new position of the United States in world affairs. While he has no intention of recommending that language study be required of all pupils, he believes that much greater opportunity should be available to students who wish to take advantage of it. And since the Commissioner wants to give students facility in the use of the spoken language as a basis for face-to-face communication, his proposal involves the rather revolutionary suggestion that language instruction begin as early as Grade IV, V, or VI.

Largely, no doubt, as a result of McGrath's challenge, the Rockefeller

Foundation has made a grant of \$120,000 to the Modern Language Association for a three-year inquiry (which began October 1) "into the role which foreign languages and literatures now play and should hereafter play in American life."

McGrath's pronouncement and the beginning of the MLA's inquiry have undoubtedly given new hope and renewed interest to many language teachers, who had felt that all "educationists" were intransigently opposed to the study of foreign languages in the schools. To have someone in the upper echelons of the educational hierarchy say a kind word for language-study is, to many language teachers, an occurrence unprecedented to the point of seeming miraculous. Hence many language teachers are already at work to see what can be done to put the Commissioner's proposal into effect. Efforts have ranged from consideration by state associations of possibilities for revising state courses of study to attempts by individual teachers to alter practices in their own schools.

This new interest and activity have great potentialities, but they are equally great for either good or ill. Language teachers will be eager to get something started, to move while enthusiasm is still high, to get some kind of wedge immediately into this crack which has so unexpectedly opened in what seemed to them a solid wall of opposition. But they will do well to restrain their impatience until they are certain what ought to be done and

how it can best be done. If course outlines and syllabi are prepared in a rush, there will be great temptation to follow the adage, "Don't stop to get it right, get it written." But striking while the iron is hot is foolish if all you have to hammer with is your bare fist. The status of language-study in America is not sufficiently robust to be able to withstand any new blows which may be dealt it by inadequate improvisations in planning and executing new programs. If the new programs are to have a beneficial effect on the status of foreign-language-teaching in the long run, they should be planned with a careful view to the following conditions.

1. The objectives of these new programs should be carefully selected as those most appropriate and those most susceptible of effective treatment. Obviously, doing the wrong things or trying to do the supposedly "right" things in impossible situations can both be equally fatal to the enterprise. And the objectives selected must have some educational significance and must be achievable to a degree which is educationally worth while. To teach French in Grade IV simply to be teaching French in Grade IV is an undertaking which will not long survive.

2. The objectives should be clearly stated. Language teachers may easily become lost in their own slogans. "Foreign languages for one world," "Language-study for improved international understanding," and the like may be all very well, but they will not

guide work in fifth-grade Spanish. Something short of these global aspirations is needed. Unless objectives are precisely stated, teachers will never know exactly what they are trying to do, and neither they nor anyone else will be in a position to judge the effectiveness of the attempt.

3. These undertakings should be "experimental" in the strictest sense possible, not merely attempts to "try something different." The courses should be planned so that some specific hypotheses are tested and some assessment of success or failure can be made. To have a lot of people trying out a lot of different things will be valuable only if this experience is in such a form that something can be learned from it. Otherwise, when the wave of initial enthusiasm ebbs away, there will be nothing but flotsam left on the educational shingle.

4. Evaluation should be planned for at the outset. Too often teachers devote all their energies to getting a new program started and keeping it going. Then as the end of the program nears, the thought suddenly strikes them that some evaluation of its success or failure would be desirable. But by then it is usually too late. Data which should have been secured earlier are gone forever. Insofar as these new undertakings are to influence the educational programs of the future, careful evaluation of them is vital, and the evaluation must be planned in advance.

5. Provision must be made for continuity. An early start for language-

study will amount to little or nothing unless that study can be followed up. There will be little fruit from Spanish in Grades IV and V if a linguistic drought sets in for the next four or five grades. Courses which are not part of a unified, continuing program of language-study will be worse than no courses at all.

The foregoing are a few of the points that language teachers will have to keep in mind if their efforts are to be rewarded. The points are all so obvious that they scarcely seem to need restatement here. The difficulty is that they are easily forgotten in the rush to do something quick.

Local administrators and other educators must also do their share if the ideas are to have a fair test and if the time and energy expended on the new attempts are not to be wasted. And administrators and specialists in education can profit from this wave of enthusiasm. Some have been opposed to the study of foreign languages for reasons every bit as irrational as those sometimes advanced by proponents of language-study. These people will at least have another chance to overcome their prejudices. Others have been honestly uncertain about the place of foreign-language-study in the schools or have reached negative conclusions on the basis of such evidence as they had. Some have felt that language teachers were in a rut, were claiming results which they could not substantiate, or were out of touch with the total program of the school.

For the capable administrator, the

present stirring in the language field offers a real opportunity. Language teachers undertaking new ventures will welcome help which the administrator can provide. He can assist them in selecting objectives which will fit into the school program as a whole. He can aid them in planning courses which will be truly experimental. He can help them with problems of evaluation so that both he and his language staff can work to secure evidence cogent to both parties. The place of the foreign languages in the curriculum has historically been a result of prejudice and pressure rather than a consequence of the judicious weighing of evidence. The educator who is willing to work with his language teachers in their new undertaking will have a new opportunity to educate them and be educated himself, and the result can be a real contribution to educational research in a field where relatively little sound evidence of any sort exists.

There are indeed potentialities in this new movement; but only careful co-operative effort on the part of all concerned will make the potentialities become actualities.

"EXPERIMENT" VS. "EXPERIMENT"

THE preceding remarks about possible experimental courses in foreign languages and the experience of reading several large piles of current educational materials in preparation for writing these "news notes" bring to mind once more some familiar

thoughts about the ambiguity of the term "experiment" itself.

Usually, "experiment" has all sorts of scientific, honorific connotations. We have mental pictures of Professor Fermi pulling a rod to start the first self-sustaining reaction in nuclear fission, an operation testing and corroborating physical theory and leading to new miracles in theory and practice. The educational literature is always full of experiments, and we and the people conducting them are always hoping that they are like Professor Fermi's.

But there is another variety. Little Willy receives a chemistry set for Christmas; and after he has run through all the recipes in the instruction book, he usually dumps all the chemicals he has left into one test tube to see what will happen. He has never tried it before. He has always wondered what would happen if he did it. Probably no one else has ever done exactly this before, either. It is certainly touch and go what will happen. This, too, he calls an "experiment."

Many of these same things were true of Professor Fermi's experiment, but the differences in the two cases are what is significant. Nor is the most important difference the fact that, in case of failure, the blast terminating Professor Fermi's attempt would have been louder than that marking Willy's. Fermi was working in relation to a clear theoretical structure on the basis of a long chain of experimental findings. He knew exactly what he

was trying to do and why it should work. Even had the outcome of his particular experiment been disastrous, other workers could have profited from the error; and the chances for success of the next experiment would have been much greater.

Too much educational experimentation tends to resemble Willy's more closely than it does Professor Fermi's. This statement is not intended to imply that the social sciences will necessarily find the perfect paradigm for their method in that of the physical sciences. Nor does it ignore our present difficulties in securing for education a theoretical framework of equal adequacy to that now possessed by physics. The point is merely that we have much "experimenting" in education. A teacher or an administrator gets an idea or, frequently, several ideas and puts them into operation. Too often he works in no theoretical context which can relate his efforts to anything else that has been thought or done. The hypotheses are not clearly formulated and hence are never really tested or established. The results are, consequently, a series of fragmentary efforts but not a growing body of knowledge.

Workers are becoming more and more aware of these difficulties, some of which are inherent in the nature of education as a possible field of study. And graduate training continues to emphasize the factors involved in "design of experiment." The general situ-

ation in this regard is improving. But we still have a long way to go.

"PLUGGING" THE EDUCATIONAL PRODUCT

ANOTHER PROBLEM in present-day education is mirrored in two recent monographs in rather different fields. The first, Edward A. Fitzpatrick's *Great Books: Panacea or What?* (Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1952. \$2.75) is, as the title indicates, intended to be a critical examination of the "Great Books" courses as a program of liberal education for adults. The present writer, who does not qualify as a proponent of the Great Books program in its present form (though he is something of an addict to the books involved and to their use in educational programs), finds the criticism disappointing. Some of it seems petty; some of it seems to miss the point; and many of the amendments and replacements offered, for example, the course in proverbs or in American sayings, seem considerably less than felicitous—in fact, hardly relevant. On the other hand, it is hard not to agree with many of Fitzpatrick's comments concerning the rate at which the books are covered, the weaknesses engendered by the teachers' lack of training, or the question whether this single general method of liberal study is the only one for every person. But the purpose of these paragraphs is not to review the book but to point the moral that the criticism seems most sound

when it is directed toward the rhetorical aspects of the Great Books program—that is, toward the possibly exaggerated claims as to what is actually accomplished or pretensions to the program's being the universal nostrum.

The second book is Harry R. Warfel's *Who Killed Grammar?* (University of Florida Press, 1952. \$2.50). If one asks, "Who killed the teaching of English grammar in the public schools?" the answer given here is, "Professor C. C. Fries, of the University of Michigan, and some of his followers." Yet Warfel is careful to point out in his Preface and throughout the book that he is not feuding with Fries on all points. In fact, he considers him "fundamentally right in principle if not correct in all details." His charges of "non-science" and "non-sense" grow out of his belief that Fries and his followers sometimes go out of their sphere or beyond their data.

Both books, then, produce their greatest effect and serve their primary purpose when they attack the propaganda rather than the fundamental program of the two movements which they treat. And like these two monographs, an enormous amount of educational writing consists in propaganda and counterpropaganda. Education as a practical activity does require that people be persuaded. Pupils, parents, principals, superintendents, boards, presidents, and the rest must be convinced of the goodness of

aims, of methods, and of materials. True, the rise of "the scientific study of education" was based on the hope that educational issues would be settled scientifically. But education involves many matters and touches on many areas of human life where scientific treatment is not now possible—whether it can or should ever become so. But even where something which might pass for scientific evidence is available, it seems to be a sad fact that rational demonstration alone does not come home to men's hearts and bosoms sufficiently to move them to action. Something more is needed; and here propaganda, rhetoric, and all the arts of persuasion enter the scene. The man who has developed what he considers a good educational mousetrap feels that he cannot sit at home, waiting for the world to beat a path to his door. He is under some compulsion to buy a big bass drum and hire a few dancing girls. And since the educational midway is thronged with other barkers with their medicine shows, he is always under pressure to improve his own "spiel" by making still more extravagant claims for his product.

A number of dangers grow out of this situation. For one thing, there is always the possibility that the alleged "cure-all" is only colored alcohol. Despite our much-vaunted suspicion of "taking things on the basis of authority," it is undubitably true that modern man cannot scientifically investigate everything in his life. Nor can the modern educator investigate,

in any strict sense of that term, everything that is offered for his adoption. When experts differ and schools of thought clash, as they usually do, it is easy for our evaluation of contending authorities to be based much more on their persuasiveness than on their soundness. But perhaps this danger is not too great in education.

Another danger grows out of the concern with rhetoric or propaganda in itself. Most educational movements which have achieved popularity have been so busy extending themselves oratorically that they constitute tempting targets for the pinpricks of logic, evidence, or even common sense. And it is right that the pedagogical flatulence be reduced, lest rhetoric, unchallenged, attain the effectiveness of the great lie. Nonetheless, there is a danger. To put the case in an inelegant metaphor, there is always the risk that, once we have demonstrated that the claims of the toothpaste manufacturers are exaggerated, we will decide to stop cleaning our teeth.

The present writer agrees with both Fitzpatrick and Warfel that the claims of the two movements they attack are exaggerated. But he would regard it as most unfortunate if certain fundamental values both in the Great Books and in the linguistic analysis of English were lost merely because the proponents of both get carried away with themselves. The problem of the modern educator is to get behind the tumult and the shout-

ing, whether pro or con, and to examine proposals on their own merits.

THE STRANGER WITHIN AND WITHOUT OUR GATES

AMERICAN education became internationalized at the end of World War II. We undertook to assist both enemies and allies in the rehabilitation and reorganization of their educational programs and various other cultural activities. These attempts involved not only sending educational and cultural missions abroad but also the receiving of a veritable flood of foreign visitors to our own shores. Thousands of American schools, colleges, and universities have been visited, and, in each, many teachers and administrators have played host.

Many of us have had mixed feelings about both these enterprises. As for the foreign visitors, we were happy to help them see American life and American education at first hand and were flattered to show our institutions and programs and to discuss our personal teaching and research. We welcomed the opportunity to extend our vision and our knowledge beyond the ivory tower or salt mine of our classroom and office. We felt we could profit from the comments of those who saw things from a different point of view and who were less likely to accept something merely because we in America had always done it that way.

We thought the visitors also had a chance to learn. They could see an educational program at all levels from

kindergarten to adult education—a program varied by the practices of forty-eight states, many religious denominations, and numerous private organizations and institutions. Here was the varied educational system of a wealthy nation, which was physically unscarred by war. And we Americans, whatever our other faults, are usually hospitable to strangers and glad to share our professional secrets with anyone prepared to listen. Certainly the situation seemed to promise mutual benefit.

But there is the other side to the coin. The writer cannot speak for the foreigners' side of the matter. Undoubtedly they too have their complaints. But there does seem some consensus among those of us who have had a share in entertaining these visitors that much of the time was wasted—unnecessarily. A large investment of time was inevitable, but numerous visitors came to learn about programs about which they had heard vaguely but about which they had attempted to learn nothing before their arrival on the spot. There were those who came to one place, having confused it with another. In all these and similar instances, a little more preparation would have enabled the visitor to ask intelligent rather than foolish questions and to get more from a visit than the bare minimum of information. Then there were those who, because of linguistic and cultural differences, sometimes got the wildest misconceptions about our work and who assidu-

ously copied this misinformation into the ever present notebook. Unless much of this record is providentially lost, generations of foreign students will be given some very odd descriptions of what goes on here. Then there were those foreigners who were scheduled to be in town for three days and were supposed to improve their time visiting something or talking to somebody, and that something or somebody proved to be our school and us—though neither we nor our visitors were sure why. At the end of a few days of such futility, many of us were inclined to take a line from Robert Frost's poem "Mending Wall" and assert peevishly, "Good fences make good neighbors," and to suggest that everyone should stay home for a few years.

This reaction was not intended to be taken completely seriously even in the case of the most testy of us. Both we and the visitors gained from the interchange. But there has been an enormous waste of human effort on both sides (to say nothing of other cost)—a waste which a little more careful processing and preparation of the visitors would have greatly reduced. Because of the size of the operation, such processing is itself difficult, time-consuming, and costly, but it does seem that more expenditure at that point would save far more time, money, and energy in the long run.

Our efforts abroad also seem to be subject to improvement, if we can judge by what we hear from time to

time. A disquieting note is struck by G. Robert Koopman, of the Michigan Department of Public Instruction, upon returning from his post as chief cultural officer on the staff of the U.S. High Commissioner for Germany. In Koopman's analysis of the present situation of our cultural program in Germany, perhaps the most interesting of his suggestions are those for constructive action, with indications of the points at which the present situation distresses him:

In order that we may not get lost in any useless and destructive activities, I think we should adhere closely to the following three objectives:

1. We should seek to encourage the gradual development and installation of international cultural relations which will be democratic, sincere, overt, co-planned with the cultural agencies and completely independent of information, propaganda, and psychological warfare programs.

2. We should seek to bring about a new State Department personnel policy based upon the utilization of the great state and private facilities of higher education.

3. We should encourage the unofficial cultural agencies, institutions, and associations in the United States each to develop an appropriate program of cultural relations with foreign peoples and with foreign counterpart institutions. This should be completely free of governmental pressure and direction and should deal with exchange of persons, co-operative investigations, international meetings, exchange of artistic programs in the form of drama, recordings, films, etc., exchange of literature, the translation of literature, and the exchange of information.

Unless citizens of the United States become concerned about the problem, the

present overemphasis on political, military and economic programs, the present inefficient administration, and the extreme tension which characterize world affairs will almost certainly conspire to bring about a third World War more disastrous than anything we can imagine.

These educational operations both at home and abroad are extensive and expensive. It is admittedly difficult in times of pressure and tension to make the actual realize the ideal. But this striving for an ideal is what education is. The international exchange of education and educators has enormous potential value. It would be sad if this undertaking resulted—as it sometimes appears to threaten to do—in something not merely far less than we had hoped but perhaps in something quite the opposite. It is hard for American teachers to be critical and vigilant in regard to so enormous a program involving the highest levels of diplomatic and military policy and power. But we must do what we can.

WHAT DOES GENERAL EDUCATION DO TO STUDENTS?

TEACHERS and administrators at all educational levels will be interested in a study which Muskingum College has made of the effect of its program of general education. The results obtained and the problems raised are so typical of all education that the report should not be overlooked by those not primarily interested in general education at the college level. The following quotations

are taken from "General Education at Muskingum College" by Robert N. Montgomery and Darrell Holmes (*Educational Research Bulletin, XXXI* [September 17, 1952], 141-50).

The general purpose of this study is to determine in so far as educational tests can provide valid data, the total impact which the general-education program has upon Freshman students. In essence this means evaluating the extent to which students gain proficiency in using skills in solving problems which they are encountering, and probably will encounter. Ideally, the total program should be appraised in terms of how well each of the stated objectives in general education is being accomplished. In the interest of providing a convenient means of organizing the data and findings of this research, the objectives have been re-worked, their essential characteristics being kept in mind. Four fundamental questions have been formulated which are basic to the appraisal of the Freshman general-education program:

1. Are all students learning subject matter—facts and principles—in communication, social studies, and science?
2. Are all students learning to think better as a result of taking social studies, and as a result of the Freshman program in general?
3. Are certain attitudes, values, and beliefs of the students being modified in a desirable direction?
4. Are all students gaining cultural advantages through attending concerts and lectures, reading, and similar experiences?

The writers know that answering these questions does not adequately indicate how well students are learning that subject matter which is pertinent only to the area being studied, the extent to which students are learning to apply subject matter to everyday problems, the extent to which the program is meeting students' needs, and the sort of emotional and social adjustment students

are making. However, the questions are concerned with fundamental criticisms which have been made of the general-education program, and they do provide one with perspective in making the total appraisal. As such they are worthy of careful consideration. . . .

The students' records in the subject-matter areas of communication, science, and social studies . . . show that students made marked gains in subject matter learned during the course of the year. Moreover, gains in subject matter are made irrespective of students' initial knowledge of the subject; and gains are made irrespective of the academic aptitude of students. That is, students who ranked low in initial knowledge or in academic aptitude gained about as much as did students who ranked high. The average score of the Muskingum Freshmen compares very favorably with national norms on each of the tests administered. Insofar as can be determined, college experiences make a significant contribution to student improvement. This is definitely so in the case of science where an adequate control group was present. It is probably also true in the cases of communication and social studies, but adequate control groups were not available.

The weight of available evidence . . . strongly suggests that social studies do help a student to perform better such tasks as detecting assumptions in a statement or argument, identifying central issues in a problem, evaluating evidence or authoritative assertions, and drawing warranted conclusions from materials which are typical of the social studies. Differences obtained between mean gains of the samples from each of three classes and from one sample of students not taking social studies are not quite statistically reliable. The gain . . . for the test of critical thinking reveals that students do improve in their general skill in thinking during the course of the year. Without adequate control groups, it is impossible to

determine the extent to which the gain in thinking skills is due to attending Muskingum or to maturation. The following is true with regard to thinking gains made in social studies and the college program in general: a student's initial ability did not limit the amount of gain, evidently, as students with low initial scores show gains about equal to those of students with high initial scores. Nor did academic aptitude affect the amount of gain to any appreciable degree. Students with low academic aptitude gained about as much as students with high. Wide individual differences in thinking, however, are evident within the Freshman class. Students with higher academic aptitude show more skill in thinking than do students with low academic aptitude.

On the average, students are having their values and beliefs changed. The extent of change is not marked, but it is reliable. During the course of the year students seem to come into a better understanding as to how problems in human relations can be solved with due regard for the personality of others. No evidence is available, however, to determine whether students actually practice what they learn in this connection. Judging from the gain of 2.0 on the Inventory of Beliefs, . . . students' beliefs or assumptions as to the nature of ideas, institutions, others, and themselves tend to become more sound during the course of the year. Regardless of initial beliefs or of academic aptitude, students showed gains during the course of the year. As in the case of previous findings, wide individual differences exist among students as to what they believe about any given idea. . . .

The general purpose of the total Freshman program . . . is to help students cope with problems of significance to them, and to do this on a level which is higher than that used by the average non-college person. The evidence of this research suggests how well this is being done. . . .

At the very crux of the thinking process

are the fundamental beliefs or assumptions which a person has relative to the nature of the elements of the problem about which he is thinking. These assumptions are frequently emotional in nature and may belong to the student because of the culture from which he comes, and not necessarily because of the essential soundness of the assumptions. The assumptions which a student makes about the elements of a given problem predetermine the solution which he is going to reach. . . .

That students do have a number of misconceptions about the nature of ideas, institutions, and people is clearly indicated by the results of the administration of the Inventory of Beliefs. The fact that students showed improvement during the course of the year is reassuring. But how much improvement?

The improvement in the validity of students' beliefs according to the rule-of-thumb technique used to interpret the data is approximately one-fourth that made in subject matter, and one-half that made in thinking skills. One reasonably wonders how much improvement can be expected; no data are available on this point. Undoubtedly, beliefs, opinions, and assumptions are changed with varying degrees of difficulty, depending on a variety of factors. However difficult may be the task of effecting changes in invalid beliefs, the writers contend that its accomplishment is essential to the material improvement in quality of thinking done by our students. This interpretation of the data suggests that Muskingum should attempt to do a better job of preparing the students to think about social problems.

The writers venture the opinion that this conclusion is not peculiar to Muskingum College. It is their belief that unless concerted action is taken to make students increasingly aware of the significance of the process of critical thinking, and to encourage students to improve the adequacy of their

thinking through testing their beliefs, colleges may be in the unenviable position of providing students with the data and the reasoning skill with which to defend their initial ignorance.

SOCIAL WELFARE INFORMATION FOR TEACHERS

THE TEACHER in the American public school, because of what W. W. Charters once called "the residual function" of the school, has become used to assuming more and more responsibilities for students. Functions once performed by the home, the community environment, the church, and other agencies and institutions have more and more been thrust upon the school. The harried teacher must occasionally feel that no one else is doing anything for children. But this desperate thought is not quite true. Other agencies are operating, and the teacher should be able to co-operate with them and know how they can co-operate with the teacher.

Dorothy Zietz's *Social Welfare Information for Teachers* (East Lansing, Michigan: Campus Book Store, Michigan State College, 1952. \$1.00) is a recent little book designed to orient the teacher to social agencies. The scope of the book is best indicated by listing its Table of Contents:

- I. Child Welfare: Its History in America
- II. The Child and His Family in Public Welfare
- III. Private Agencies Serving the Child and His Family
- IV. The Fields of Social Work
- V. Parent-Child Relationships
- VI. The School as a Detection Center
- VII. The Teacher and the Social Worker

- VIII. Case Work for Children in Their Own Homes
- IX. Foster Care
- X. Adoption
- XI. Child-Guidance Clinics and Mental Hygiene
- XII. The Juvenile Court
- XIII. Leisure-Time Programs
- XIV. The Children's Charter

Chapters vi, vii, xi, xii, and xiii will possibly strike teachers as those giving information most likely to have immediate practical utility in their work, but knowledge of other aspects of the program will also be useful. The teacher in an urban community is likely to enjoy more of these resources than does the rural teacher. But as state and national agencies extend their services geographically in an effort to reach all citizens, the teacher who assumes that no such resources are available in his locality may be unwittingly depriving himself of help which is actually at hand.

THE CORE OF THE CORE

ADMINISTRATORS and teachers interested in the core curriculum or interested in learning something about it will find very useful Grace S. Wright's *Core Curriculum Development: Problems and Practices* (Bulletin 1952, No. 5, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, \$0.30). The Foreword by Wayne O. Reed, assistant commissioner, Division of State and Local School Systems, is a succinct statement of the purpose and scope of the volume:

"To provide all youth a common body of experience organized around personal and

social problems"; "to give boys and girls successful experiences in solving the problems which are real to them here and now, thus preparing them to solve future problems"; "to give youth experiences which will lead them to become better citizens in a democracy"; "to increase the holding power of the secondary school by providing a program that has meaning for all"—these are some of the reasons for a core curriculum.

Although these purposes are not served exclusively by a core program, such a program serves these purposes uniquely well. The organizational structure of core, which gives to one teacher the same group of pupils for two or more periods daily, presumably places the teacher in an effective position for discovering the immediate concerns of individuals and groups, for sensing real problems, and for providing the kind of help that is needed. Also, the longer period allows for continuity of interest, for greater relationship between subjects, and for a variety of types of experiences not possible in the usual forty-five-minute period.

Inevitably the core curriculum has met some opposition. Its purposes are not always made clear. There is sometimes a mistaken tendency to look upon it as an end rather than a means. If its purposes are understood,

there may be doubt that it can accomplish those purposes. Problems beset it all along the way. Quite often the program in a school does not develop beyond the modification of the organizational structure of the curriculum; at other times it will progress until significant changes in content and method have been achieved.

Insofar as it is concerned with the status of the core curriculum this bulletin supplements Office of Education Bulletin 1950, No. 5. Its purposes, however, are twofold: (1) to describe more fully the nature of the programs which have the organizational structure of core; and (2) to point to the problems which perplex administrators wishing to initiate or to extend the development of the core curriculum, and through illustrations of practice in schools which are moving forward with the program, to suggest ways of overcoming these problems.

Written primarily to be of help to high-school principals and teachers, this bulletin also has possibilities for use with laymen who are interested in finding out about core. Through its generous documentation of the literature covering programs in operation, it should prove helpful to research workers.

HAROLD B. DUNKEL

WHO'S WHO FOR JANUARY

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by HAROLD B. DUNKEL, associate professor of education at the University of Chicago. ARTHUR E. TRAXLER, executive director of the Educational Records Bureau of New York City, surveys the field of remedial reading, noting new developments and trends and needs that have not been met, and suggests ways of meeting these needs. CHARLES E. IRVIN, assistant professor of communication skills at Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan, writes of the program at his school which attempted, by means of a carefully controlled study, to determine whether specific training would improve students' skill in listening. DORA A. AMES, guidance director of the Toms River, New Jersey, schools, demonstrates how a community occupational survey conducted by the schools' guidance department not only gathered useful information but fostered good relations between the schools and various groups in the community. JOHN E. SANDS, educational specialist at Moody Air Force Base, Valdosta, Georgia, and formerly director of student teaching at Arkansas State Teachers College, presents the results of a study in which he analyzed the education, experience, and respon-

sibilities of directors of student teaching and co-operating supervising teachers in 112 teacher-training institutions. BLANCHE CAMDEN, teacher of remedial English at the Leyden Community High School, Franklin Park, Illinois, tells how the elementary school from which an entering high-school student comes may help the student and his new teachers become acquainted by providing cumulative records, recorded interviews with his former teachers, and achievement-test results. WALTER J. MOORE, director of the Laboratory School of the College of Education of the University of Illinois, presents a list of selected references on secondary-school instruction.

Reviewers of books WILLIAM H. BURTON, director of apprenticeship, Harvard University Graduate School of Education. HERBERT S. ZIM, associate professor of education, University of Illinois. FRANKLIN BOBBITT, professor emeritus of education, University of Chicago. MARTIN B. LOEB, director of the Community Research Center and of appointments in the Committee on Human Development and Department of Sociology. KENNETH V. LOTICK, associate professor of education, Willamette University, Salem, Oregon.

REMEDIAL READING TODAY¹

ARTHUR E. TRAXLER
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AN OBJECTIVE IMPRESSION of remedial reading today, as I see it, will be presented in this article, although in some instances I may go beyond my data and express a wishful hope. In preparing this article, I studied materials on recent research in reading, abstracted by the Educational Records Bureau, and the responses to a recent questionnaire, distributed by the National Association of Remedial Teachers.

CONCEPTUAL CONSIDERATIONS

At the outset, let us note certain developing conceptual considerations concerning the child and his reading.

Consideration of the whole child.—The first of these is the present tendency, with its roots in the holism of modern educational psychology and guidance theory, to view the child as a unitary human being and to view education as concerned with all aspects of the whole individual. I do not believe that many teachers ever "fractionated" the child in their teaching to the extent that some critics say they did,

but there was formerly a tendency to deal in limited fashion with the matter at hand, instruction in reading or in other fields, and to overlook outside influences. Teachers in all fields, and particularly teachers of reading, now show a greater awareness that the whole life-experience of the child, including elements remote in space and time from the reading situation, come together and impinge on the reading process. This tendency is evident in recent reading research, which is no longer narrowly confined to the reading act alone. Home and social influences and factors in the entire environment of the individual are studied, for it is realized that these may be causal in reading difficulty. In our modern schools, reading specialists and guidance specialists inevitably join forces, exchange information, and assist each other in furthering the development of the individual pupil.

Consideration of reading as part of total educative process.—Closely related to the concept of the child as a unitary being is the concept of reading as a central aspect of the total educative process. This concept has long been *implicit* in our schools, but in recent years it has become more ex-

¹ This article is based on a talk given on May 3, 1952, at the Third Annual Conference on Remedial Reading held under the auspices of the Testing and Advisement Center, Brooklyn College, Brooklyn, New York.

plicit. Notwithstanding the rapid rise and virtually universal use of other avenues of communication, such as the radio, the motion picture, and television, reading continues to be the principal medium of instruction in our schools. The wide recognition of the pervading role of reading in American education is a foundation stone on which remedial reading of a clinical nature rests. Recognition of this role also lends strong support to programs of group corrective reading, as well as the movement toward developmental reading.

Opposed views of the reading process.—A third factor in the developing conceptual structure may be likened to two sides of a coin. On one side is the view of reading as an exceedingly complex process—a process so intricate and so closely tied to the whole verbal equipment of the individual that the reading act challenges the best scientific procedures that psychology and education can evolve. On the other side is the view of reading as an understandable process, susceptible to scientific analysis and attack. Fifteen years ago there was a noticeable tendency to surround remedial reading with an aura of mystery—to cloak it in technical jargon and to adorn it with gadgets. In recent years our terminology has undergone much pruning, and our ideas have been restated in practical, functional terms so that the clinical expert and the teacher can now converse with one another. The paraphernalia and procedures that have en-

dured have been subjected to a good deal of research. All this is salutary.

Recognition of relation between reading and personal factors.—A fourth concept characteristic of remedial reading today is a much more extensive recognition of a relationship between reading difficulty and emotional difficulty. The expansion of this recognition is one of the most pronounced trends in present-day thinking about remedial problems. The rise of projective techniques and of nondirective therapy has helped to bring forcibly to the attention of school personnel the importance of personal and emotional adjustment in all learning. Teachers of reading are showing an increasing awareness of the fact that a reading difficulty may not be specific to the reading situation but may be symptomatic of a deep-seated emotional disturbance. They realize, too, that, when reading retardation is a symptom, little can be accomplished by treating the symptom until the basic difficulty is alleviated.

The conviction concerning the relation between reading and adjustment is not confined to remedial work with children. As was stated in a recent report of clinical experience with reading problems at the adult level, "Adult reading patterns are more often than not intermingled with problems of life-adjustment."²

² Bernard Shore, "Reading Problems of Adults," *Remedial Reading Newsletter of the Brooklyn College Testing and Advisement Center*, II (April, 1952), 4.

This growing appreciation of emotional and personality factors in reading difficulty is evidence of a degree of sophistication that until the last few years was characteristic of comparatively few persons in the reading field. This recognition gives remedial work in reading a vitality it could never possess if it concentrated attention exclusively upon the mechanics of the reading process.

At the same time, reading teachers ought to remember that not all reading problems have emotional origins. In most cases of severe reading disability, emotional maladjustment is involved, but emotional factors are not always causal. Emotional maladjustment may result from reading retardation. A good deal of the recent reading research has been directed toward attempts to unravel cause and effect in persons with specific reading difficulties who also show severe emotional involvement.

ORGANIZATIONAL PROCEDURES FOR INSTRUCTION IN READING

It is generally agreed by those concerned with reading that three kinds of organization are needed to meet reading needs throughout the elementary- and secondary-school grades: developmental reading for all pupils; corrective reading for those pupils whose reading difficulties are comparatively mild and are apparently uncomplicated by emotional problems; and remedial reading for those pupils with severe reading difficulty. Current

practice in many schools tends to bear out this opinion. In response to a questionnaire which the National Association for Remedial Teaching submitted to its membership in the spring of 1951, approximately two-thirds of the public schools represented in the study stated that they attempted to improve the reading of all pupils through regular classroom procedures; three-fourths of these schools indicated that they had a corrective reading program; and three-fourths stated that they carried on remedial-reading instruction.³ The fact that the number of schools providing programs of remedial or corrective reading is larger than the number with developmental reading programs probably reflects the recency of the concept and practice of planned developmental reading procedures above the elementary-school level.

Developmental reading program.—The details of the organization of the developmental reading program, of course, differ from school to school, but the majority have several features in common. There is a growing tendency to regard reading as an all-school problem for which it is necessary to obtain the co-operation of all faculty members. In a large number of schools the words "every teacher a teacher of reading" are no longer an empty slogan or an unrealistic dream. At the

³ Arthur E. Traxler, "Current Organization and Procedures in Remedial Teaching," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XX (March, 1952), 305-12.

same time, it must be recognized that there are still many schools in which most of the faculty members are not interested in the reading ability of their pupils. Furthermore, it continues to be difficult to persuade classroom teachers that improved reading achievement will not only benefit the individual pupil but will also lighten the burden of teaching and enable the teacher to do more effective work—something which should be obvious.

Corrective reading program.—While a program of reading improvement in a school should make extensive use of the regular classroom teachers (and there is an unmistakable trend toward obtaining the active support of *all* teachers for the reading program), the success of the work calls for the leadership of one or more trained persons. It is encouraging to find that nearly two-thirds of the schools and one-half of the colleges responding to the NART questionnaire have one or more full-time remedial teachers. In addition, one-third of the public schools and two thirds of the colleges have teachers assigned to part-time remedial instruction. Because of the selected character of the institutions represented in the NART, the proportion of these schools with some remedial instruction is probably greater than the per cent of the schools of the country as a whole. But only a short time ago, even the schools in the NART had few teachers especially trained for remedial work. About 60 per cent of these institutions began their remedial programs in 1940 or later.

Remedial-reading program.—An additional factor in the organization of current reading programs is the realization that a relatively small but important proportion of the school population cannot find release from their reading disabilities without clinical attention. Thus, thorough remedial services tend to include either the development of clinical services within an institution or the utilization of such services from without. As evidenced by the replies to the NART questionnaire and by other studies, clinical services are becoming more widely available than they were even a few years ago. Clinicians and classroom teachers of reading are developing closer understanding and are showing a greater tendency to co-operate fully than they did in former years. It is apparently being realized to an increasing extent that seldom can one specialist, however able, thoroughly understand a complicated learning or emotional problem. In most instances, thorough diagnosis becomes possible only when specialists and practitioners pool their knowledge, understanding, and peculiar techniques.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

Several current trends in instructional procedures in remedial and corrective reading may be discerned.

Integration of reading into regular school program.—The first of these is integration of the reading program into the regular school day of the secondary school. Schools that depend largely upon free periods and after-

school hours for reading instruction are now decidedly in the minority. In a recent survey of remedial reading in secondary schools, Brink and Witty found that, in all but twenty-seven of 109 schools, reading classes met regularly five days a week and that, in approximately three-fourths of these school systems, pupils were given credit for the remedial-reading course equal to that which they would receive in any regular course.⁴

Emphasis on understanding of individual.—A second trend is toward greater emphasis upon diagnosis and understanding of the individual before undertaking to instruct him in reading. The use of reading tests as a starting point in diagnosis is now almost universal, and many other techniques, such as intelligence tests, ratings of pupils, and inventories of their interests, are used almost as frequently. Likewise, techniques of personality appraisal in cases of involved difficulties are coming into wide use. More attention is apparently being given now than formerly to the individualization of corrective instruction to take account of specific needs as indicated by detailed diagnosis.

Eliminating pressure.—At all school levels, and particularly in remedial work with younger children, there is a tendency to eliminate stress and pressure and to carry on remedial activities in a friendly, relaxed atmosphere.

⁴ William G. Brink and Paul A. Witty, "Current Practices in Remedial Reading in Secondary Schools," *School Review*, LVII (May-June, 1949), 260-66.

To this end, considerable attention is likely to be given to the physical setup of the remedial room, including such items as the use of harmonious colors and comfortable furniture and an informal arrangement of tables and chairs.

Aspects emphasized in instruction.—In those aspects of remedial work that involve direct concentration upon the reading process, the present tendency is to stress comprehension and word attack rather than to emphasize the mechanics of the process, as was so often true earlier.

Use of wide range of materials.—An important aid to instruction in current remedial programs is the availability of a wide range of reading materials prepared especially for use in such programs. Nearly all these materials have been published within the last ten or fifteen years, and some of the best have been issued very recently. It is no longer necessary for remedial teachers to spend several hours each day in locating and preparing reading materials appropriate for work on a particular reading skill at the next class meeting. However, it should be pointed out that we continue to need more materials that have been scientifically prepared and evaluated so that they will have high interest value for comparatively mature pupils and, at the same time, be on a low difficulty level. There is also a need for greater variety in the reading difficulty of content-subject textbooks designed for classroom use.

Attention given to all pupils.—In

many schools, reading instruction is no longer confined to pupils who are low in reading ability as compared with grade norms. To an increasing extent, schools are recognizing that many able pupils need stimulation and guidance in bringing their reading level up to capacity. It is encouraging, and indeed surprising, that approximately half of the four hundred schools included in a recent survey of reading instruction in public schools stated that they give as much attention to bright students as they do to average or slow students.⁵

QUESTIONS THAT CONTINUE TO BE CONTROVERSIAL

In a field as complex as reading, inevitably some sharp differences of opinion have arisen concerning the origin of reading difficulties and the procedures to be used in their treatment. However, different reading specialists do not seem to be as far apart on some of these questions today as they formerly were. In general, there seems to be greater tolerance of the viewpoints of other specialists—a tolerance which is one of the distinguishing characteristics of professional maturity. Nevertheless, it is not to be inferred that all points of difference have disappeared.

Effect of cerebral dominance.—Among the controversial issues related to reading, two especially continue to be undecided so far as research evidence is concerned. One of these issues

⁵ Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests, Inc., "Reading Instruction in the Public Schools," (419 West 119th Street), New York 27: The Committee, 1951.

has to do with strephosymbolia (the perceiving of objects reversed) and the influence of handedness, eyedness, and mixed dominance (of the cerebral hemisphere) upon reading ability. The findings of different studies of this problem are not in agreement. Some studies reveal little or no relationship, while others seem to show much greater incidence of left-dominant and intergraded individuals among poor readers than among good readers even when the poor and good readers are matched according to mental ability. The greater weight of published evidence seems to be on the side of regarding lack of cerebral dominance as important in only a small proportion of remedial cases, but no definite conclusion can be drawn until more comprehensive research data are available.

Use of mechanical equipment.—The other noteworthy controversial matter concerns the use of mechanical equipment in reading instruction. Some reading specialists continue to be strong advocates of the use of the metronoscope, films, and filmstrips, and such recent devices as the Reading Accelerator, while other specialists are vigorously opposed to the use of devices of these kinds. There seems to be no real doubt concerning the value of mechanical devices, such as the ophthalmograph, for *diagnostic* purposes, but recent research, like earlier research, fails to clarify the issue in regard to the use of machines for *instructional* purposes. While mechanical equipment apparently can be used to advantage with some pupils and by

some remedial teachers, there is, as yet, no clear-cut evidence that mechanical devices are essential in reading instruction or that, in general, they bring about greater gains than can be achieved through good teaching based on freer methods. Opinion on this issue is frequently tinged with strong emotion, and this fact makes it difficult to obtain thoroughly objective appraisals of mechanical devices.

CURRENT NEEDS IN REMEDIAL READING

What are the outstanding needs in the field of remedial reading if we are to make progress beyond the stage reached today? As I see them, there are two great needs.

Research on basic questions.—One of these is well-planned, large-scale research into some of the big, basic, theoretical questions, such as the influence of emotional, physiological, and neurological factors, and into some of the intensely practical questions, such as the influence of remedial work on reading ability after a lapse of time, the influence on school work, and, particularly, the influence on vocational success. We have a new and rapidly growing need for research on the benefits of remedial reading for high-level employees in business and industrial organizations—an area in which we now have little objective information.

During the last thirty-five years there has been more research on reading than on any other school subject, but much of this is not careful research. Teachers of reading are, of

course, highly literate, and they readily break into print with reports of their own experiments that are often faulty in design and naïve statistically. Notwithstanding these limitations, such reports are helpful to other teachers, and they should not be discouraged. In addition, however, we need studies planned and carried out on a scale far beyond the resources of any one individual.

In spite of the many titles of studies in reading that may be cited, our research thus far is so ineffectual that we cannot readily refute the position of certain authorities on child psychology who stoutly maintain that remedial work is seldom of any value and that most of the results it is able to accomplish would eventually be brought about by the natural maturation process of the child and with less emotional stress. Such a position is, of course, not in agreement with the general observation of those who work in the remedial field, but it is difficult for remedial workers to cite convincing research to support their view.

An important reason why much of our research on reading is inconclusive is that too often we have been content to stop when we have reported noteworthy gains obtained during the period of remedial instruction and have failed to follow up the individuals to determine the pattern of their reading growth during the following one, two, or three years. As William S. Gray stated in a recent article, "every school should engage continuously in evaluating the results obtained and in

making needed adjustments in reading programs and teaching procedures to insure needed improvement in all areas and among all pupils."¹⁶

We need, I believe, one strong, vital organization that is influential enough to obtain substantial financial support for the comprehensive, long-term study of some of these problems. I feel that the National Association for Remedial Teaching and the International Council for the Improvement of Reading Instruction might be in a better position to obtain the kind of aid that is needed if they would get together and pool their resources.

Trained personnel.—The other great need at present is trained personnel—persons with high aptitude for teaching and guidance who will get the necessary training and devote the rest of their lives to the remedial-teaching field.

Twenty-five or thirty years have passed since the first well-designed and thorough experiments in the improvement of reading ability of secondary-school and college students were carried on. It is a matter of observation that it requires about a

¹⁶ William S. Gray, "Promoting Development in Reading among All Pupils," *Education in a Period of National Preparedness*, p. 114. American Council on Education Studies, Vol. XVI. Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 53. Washington: American Council on Education, 1952.

generation for an idea introduced on an experimental basis to affect general practice in the schools. Thus, within the last few years we have seen what amounts virtually to an explosion of interest in reading at all school levels. This natural trend has recently been given impetus by nation-wide attacks upon schools for allegedly poor teaching of the basic skills.

The rapid multiplication of reading programs resulting from these forces has not only absorbed reading teachers as rapidly as they could be trained but has inevitably led to the use of many teachers inadequately trained for the task. Equipment, reading materials, methods, administrative support—these are important considerations, but they are secondary to the need for *personnel*. There simply are not enough able remedial teachers to go around.

In-service training of teachers through short, intensive, on-the-job courses is greatly needed and should be encouraged, but this is not enough. Recruitment of sufficient numbers of promising young persons for thorough training in this field is, I believe, our most immediate and urgent problem. Future progress in remedial work is likely to be determined in considerable measure by our success in meeting this problem.

EVALUATING A TRAINING PROGRAM IN LISTENING FOR COLLEGE FRESHMEN

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LISTEN, MY CHILDREN, and you shall hear, of the midnight ride of Paul Revere." The important thing about these lines of a famous old poem lies not in the historical reference but in the promise that something will accrue from listening. White crossbars that mark the intersection of highway and railroad bear the words "Stop, Look, and Listen." Teachers in the primary grades clap their hands and admonish children to listen. Professors expect students to take notes on college lectures. No matter where the observer turns—to classroom, business office, living room, United Nations Assembly, steel-strike meeting, or Korean truce meeting—he comes to the inescapable conclusions that listening is an important phase of our living; listening results in the acquisition of information through the understanding of spoken symbols; listening is often followed by changes in human thinking and behavior.

However, it is a far cry from the admission that listening is important to an admission that listening can be, or even should be, taught in the schools. Questions such as these keep confronting us: How much do we listen? How

well do we listen? Can listening be taught? Has listening been taught? What have been the results of such instruction? Can its inclusion in the curriculum be justified?

It is not the purpose of this article to answer all these questions in detail, but adequate documentary references will be suggested to readers who wish to investigate further. The amount of time spent in listening can vary from the 45 per cent of our daily lives, reported by Rankin (9: 417-20), to the 57.5 per cent of the school day, as discovered by Wilt (10). It is generally accepted by those in the field that the ability to listen varies among individuals and varies within the same individual during differing listening activities. It is also agreed that, when listening skill in individuals is tested for the comprehension of orally presented materials, efficiency ranges from a low of 25 per cent to a high of 60 per cent (3, 4, 6, 7, 8). There is no doubt that the present status of the skill merits attempts to improve it.

It is further generally conceded by those in the field of communications skills that listening can be taught (3); in fact, a number of educational insti-

tutions are teaching it.¹ At present there seem to be three major methods of approaching such instruction:

1. By a clinical procedure in which remedial classes are conducted after sufficient diagnostic testing has been administered.

2. By co-ordinating listening assignments with speaking assignments in speech classes.

3. By direct instruction either prior to, or integrated with, class lectures.

The relative merits of these methods can be judged by the results achieved when measuring devices have been applied to students' listening skill.

THE DIRECT INSTRUCTION METHOD

For over eight years Michigan State College has offered a course in the four communication skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. The weakest link in this chain has always been listening. Originally, the course was set up with four hours of class time devoted to reading, writing, and speaking, plus a one-hour lecture period during which students would be given lectures on language and its use. This one-hour lecture period had always been considered a sort of "listening laboratory."

However, as research in listening progressed among certain institutions of higher learning, it soon became apparent that the communications-skills listening laboratory at Michigan State College offered little more than prac-

¹ Among these are the University of Minnesota, Stephens College (Missouri), Air University (Maxwell Field, Alabama), and Michigan State College.

tice in listening. Mere practice could hardly be considered training in this all-important skill. Consequently, a departmental committee was appointed and charged with the responsibility of developing a program of instruction.

The character of the existing listening-practice period determined the direction of the committee's research. It was decided to utilize direct instruction in which the use of actual listening-training materials would be integrated with the then existing informational lectures to which students listened. Several short pilot studies were run: one to determine the status of the listening skill among our students; another to give some units of instruction a "trial run." The results of the diagnostic study showed that only about 27 per cent of our students tested could identify the main points of a well-organized informational lecture and that these students were less than 60 per cent accurate when asked to draw inferences from materials presented orally. When the trial run was made, the training materials were directed toward these two obvious listening weaknesses among our Freshman students.

In the spring of 1951 we had collected sufficient data to plan a full-scale training program to begin in the fall quarter of the next regular academic year and extend throughout the winter and spring quarters. The range of the reception given the idea by the staff and by others concerned was from lukewarm to enthusiastic. One

thing appeared certain, however: the efficacy of this training program would have to be determined. We were past the point where we could just "talk" listening. We needed proof that listening could be taught and that results of the instruction would be beneficial to the students.

THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

A variety of things depended on the success or failure of this projected program: a comprehensive philosophy of communication, a method of instruction, and an assumption that training in listening would result in improvement of listening skill. Consequently, three problems immediately emerged as most important: (1) the actual selection and arrangement of teachable materials; (2) the integration of these materials, by units, with the communication-skills course which is required of all Freshmen at Michigan State College; and (3) the evaluation of the instructional results.

Materials were selected and arranged by a committee of four members of the staff. In all, eighteen units of listening instruction, each ten minutes in length, were integrated with the one-hour lecture periods of the course. These lecture sections were eight in number, and each enrolled between two hundred and three hundred students.

To facilitate an evaluation of the results, the design of the study was kept simple. Four lecture sections, two meeting in the morning and two in the afternoon, were designated as the "ex-

perimental group" of students who would receive the listening instruction. The units of instruction were given as follows: seven in the fall quarter, six in the winter quarter, and five in the spring quarter. The other four lecture sections, also evenly distributed between morning and afternoon periods, were designated as the "control group" of students who would be assigned only the regular work of the course.

Both groups were tested prior to the initiation of the first training period and after each quarter's training period. The entire study was tightly controlled to eliminate or to minimize the many variables operative in the listening activity. In addition to the one variable being tested—listening training—eight other major variables appeared likely to influence results:

1. The personality of the lecturer.
2. Inconsistent attendance at training sessions.
3. Variations in verbal intelligence among the students.
4. Variations in listening aptitude among the students.
5. Interest in the materials being presented.
6. Previous knowledge of the materials being presented.
7. The receptive mood of the students at the precise time of listening.
8. Intentional or unintentional motivation that might be provided by the test administrator.

The listening tests employed were those constructed by Ralph Nichols at the University of Minnesota (8). Two twelve-question tests, designed to measure comprehension, were used in

each testing period. Each of the tests covered a different subject area. The materials over which the tests were given consisted of recorded segments of lectures in the subject areas corresponding to each test.

It was hoped that the evaluation would reveal three things: (1) whether a difference would exist between groups after one group had received listening instruction; (2) whether a difference in listening skill existed between the sexes; (3) whether the time of day during which the students listened had any influence on their listening proficiency.

EVALUATION OF RESULTS

Two major statistical procedures were utilized to evaluate the results of the listening-training program. An analysis of variance was used to weigh the differences that might exist because of sex of the student tested and time of day when the listening occurred. An analysis of covariance was used to weigh and adjust the differences that might exist between groups because of pre-existing differences in listening aptitude. Many of the variables, not otherwise controlled in the design of the study, were thus minimized in effect. In addition, the extreme low and the extreme high scoring brackets were carefully examined for analysis of instructional results.

In the process of the study, the control and the experimental groups numbered about twelve hundred students each. However, for the evaluation of

results, a random sampling of five hundred for each group was used as the test population.

As an outgrowth of this study, the following conclusions appear to be justified.

1. A sufficient number of the processes involved in listening can be positively influenced by teaching to result in improvement in listening comprehension.

2. The listening training given in the Michigan State College study can be credited with creating a highly significant difference between the experimental and the control groups. The difference in test-score results were significant at the 1 per cent level—a finding which means that a difference as large as that found would occur by random fluctuation less than one time in a hundred or that a non-chance factor, listening training in this instance, was operating to create this large difference.

3. Listening training can be credited with a very appreciable gain in listening skill among the below-average listeners. The tests given prior to the training were used to divide our students into below-average, average, and above-average listeners. Over 50 per cent of the below-average listeners, through training, lifted themselves out of that category into the upper levels.

4. The listening training given was apparently ineffective among the above-average listeners. The above-

average group which received training did not respond significantly to it and did relatively little better than the above-average group which did not receive any instruction.

5. Male students seemed to be significantly superior to female students in performance on the listening tests given in this study—the score differences were significant at the 1 per cent level.

6. The time of day at which students listen seems to have no significant influence upon their listening ability.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

In answer to the many questions posed earlier in this article, it can be accurately stated that listening can be taught, that it is being taught, and that its inclusion in any curriculum is justified. More materials are needed; different approaches in methodology are certainly in order; and better measuring devices are essential. However, listening training is no longer a novel and interesting idea but is rather an increasingly acceptable, necessary, and beneficial member of the communication-skills curriculum.

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A COMMUNITY OCCUPATIONAL SURVEY AS A PUBLIC RELATIONS INSTRUMENT

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A COMMUNITY SURVEY of occupations, directed by the guidance department of the Toms River schools, proved to be a method of fostering good relations between the school and the employers of the area, the graduates, the pupils, parents, and the community as a whole. That good relations already existed was apparent from the co-operation received from the groups in carrying through the survey.

DESCRIPTION OF THE COMMUNITY AND THE SCHOOL

Toms River, the county seat of Ocean County, is located in east central New Jersey. Poultry, eggs, and the summer-resort trade are important businesses in this area. Toms River is fifty-seven miles from Philadelphia and eighty miles from New York City. These factors are among those that are causing a rapid increase in population in this vicinity. The section surveyed has about 17,500 persons, or approximately 31 per cent of the total population of the county. The town of Toms River and the communities surrounding it whose pupils attend Toms River High School were included in the survey.

The high school has an average enrolment of 625. A federal- and state-aided vocational school is an integral part of the regular high school. Three vocational curriculums are offered: homemaking, automobile mechanics, and carpentry. In the last two areas the emphasis is upon diversified training. The other courses of study are college-preparatory, business, and fine arts. In May, 1950, when the survey was started, the distribution of students was as follows: college-preparatory, 42.2 per cent; business, 27.0 per cent; carpentry, 9.9 per cent; automobile mechanics, 9.2 per cent; homemaking, 5.8 per cent; fine arts, 1.2 per cent; mixed, 4.7 per cent.

PURPOSE OF THE SURVEY

The curriculums at Toms River High School were first established to meet the needs of the community as well as the goals of general education. Frequently improvements have been made to adjust to such needs, for example, by adding such subjects as consumer education, economic competence, family relationships, and social behavior. We at Toms River feel that periodically we should review the extent to which we are meeting needs.

Such evaluation was the main objective of the community occupational survey, begun in the spring of 1950.

The original purpose was to establish the need for revising the vocational curriculums. As plans progressed, however, it was apparent that appraisal in other fields would be valuable. Data upon which to base our evaluation were obtained from employers, pupils, parents, and graduates.

SURVEY OF EMPLOYERS

Several teachers and graduates assisted in compiling a list of employing establishments and prospective employers, by supplementing a list originally taken from the classified section of the telephone directory. Newspaper releases preceded the mailing of the questionnaires. In May, 1950, these forms, with accompanying letters, were sent to employers. We asked for data about the following items: types of full-time and part-time jobs, numbers of employees, serious weaknesses of beginning workers, skills and personal qualities important for beginning workers. In a follow-up during the next year we asked for personal interviews.

Thus, in February, 1951, personal contacts were made with employers. During the weeks preceding the interviews a series of events helped to inform the public of the purposes of the interviews and to pave the way for getting in contact with employers. Data from the forms returned in May, 1950, by employers, parents, pupils, and graduates, were interpreted in news stories and editorials and in talks

before civic groups, such as the Lions, Kiwanis, and Rotary clubs, the Businessmen's Association, the Business and Professional Women's Club, and the Parent-Teacher Association.

These personal interviews were made, during the school day, by Seniors who had been instructed in advance. Students volunteered on the basis of individual interest. For example, commercial pupils interviewed employers of clerical workers, while boys intending to become automobile mechanics saw garage owners. Employers who desired contact by telephone were called. The students were enthusiastic about their experiences. Employers were very co-operative in giving information, and the school and the community learned that good public relations are fostered by sharing experiences. Of a total of 700 employers, contacts were made with 54.0 per cent.

Valuable data on the occupational pattern and employment opportunities in the community were assembled, but, more important, the school felt it had shown that it was ready to help employers and was attempting to meet local needs. The number of employers who called the school for placement increased. Employers also stated that they would be eager to receive information about students applying for work, to give the school follow-up data on students placed with them, and to talk with students or to arrange visits to places of work.

Survey information indicated that, although the school was meeting many employment needs, there was greater demand than the school supplied for

workers in clerical jobs, in carpentry and allied building trades, and in automobile mechanics. Also a need for training students for work in the sales field was indicated, as well as a need for training in some professional and semi-professional occupations. Results emphasized the need for greater stress upon competence in English and arithmetic and upon the personal qualities important in holding a job.

SURVEY OF STUDENTS AND PARENTS

The Toms River High School students not only contributed to the survey by making the personal and telephone contacts with employers, but they also participated by contributing their own suggestions and securing those of their parents. In May, 1950, when the questionnaires were mailed to employers and graduates, the students in Grades VII-XII of Toms River High School and its sending schools were given questionnaires. These forms were explained to the students, who were asked to fill them out, to take them home for parents to complete, and to return them.

Students and parents replied with care. Of 897 enrolled in Grades VII-XII, 757 pupils (84.4 per cent) returned the forms; 610 family groups out of the 686 represented in these grades (88.9 per cent) responded. The enthusiasm and interest displayed by such gratifying returns indicated good public relations from several viewpoints. Some of these are as follows:

(1) It showed that both students and parents felt their suggestions were of

real value to the school. (2) It showed the mutual interest of the school and the home. (3) It showed that the school was attempting to evaluate itself in terms of needs. (4) It showed some of the activities and purposes of the guidance department. (5) It enlarged the knowledge of the parents, and thus of the community, about the school and some of its major functions.

Questions asked of students and their parents include the following:

What school subjects are the most valuable?
What other subjects do you think the school

should offer that it does not now offer?

What personality qualities do you think
will be most important in holding a job?

Students were also asked to list their occupational choices and any part-time work experiences that they had had. Parents were asked to complete a section giving the occupations of employed members of the family.

Statistics obtained from the replies of parents and students proved useful in several ways. The occupational distribution of the employed members of family groups gave us another sampling of the employment pattern of the area, in addition to that revealed by the employers. Studies were made of the relations (1) between students' occupational choices and the numbers of workers employed in the various types of jobs in the area and (2) between students' choices of occupations and the per cents enrolled in the various high-school curriculums. The study of such relations determined the extent to which the high school was meeting community and pupil needs.

SURVEY OF GRADUATES

Another yardstick was the follow-up study of Toms River High School graduates in the classes of 1947, 1948, and 1949. Questionnaires were mailed to graduates, 39.6 per cent of whom responded. Although this was the smallest return, replies indicated that a step forward in public relations had been initiated. The school had demonstrated its responsibility for, and its interest in, its former students. Also, a definite need was shown for a more complete follow-up study of graduates and of nongraduates. Close relationship between the graduates' high-school courses and their occupations was determined for 67.7 per cent of those who replied.

GENERAL RESULTS

Graduates, employers, pupils, and parents were asked to list valuable high-school subjects and personal qualities essential in holding a job. English and mathematics were the two subjects leading the lists from all groups. All groups agreed that courtesy, honesty, and neatness were important occupational assets.

Some recommendations in the survey report have been implemented; others are being studied further. The general recommendation to form a curriculum committee for more study has been adopted. Also in process are attempts to build better English and arithmetic skills, to re-emphasize essential personal traits, and to continue the follow-up study of graduates and

nongraduates. The principle of providing for a periodic continuation of the survey has been accepted. Still in need of further study are the advisability of adding courses in salesmanship, in getting and holding a job, and in other subjects not now offered.

THE SURVEY AS PUBLIC RELATIONS

It is well to remember that good public relations depend greatly upon gradual adoption of the recommendations made and upon well-planned interpretation of statistics and school services. Thus an occupational survey cannot stop with the completion of a report. Its findings need to be presented to all groups concerned. Its values need to be publicized. The Toms River newspapers published a series of articles written by a Junior in the journalism section of English. News stories were given to the press during each step in the survey, and editorials were also helpful. Survey results and statistics were presented in talks to civic groups, as well as to teachers, pupils, and parents. In such meetings the talks were supplemented by graphic presentation and general discussion. The survey reports were widely distributed to local persons, to libraries, and to educational institutions.

As a public relations instrument we in Toms River felt the survey was effective. It aroused community interest; it increased good mutual relations; it furthered the existing co-operative attitude; it informed the public through action initiated by the school.

QUALIFICATIONS AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF DIRECTORS OF STUDENT TEACHING AND OF SUPERVISING TEACHERS

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EFFICIENT off-campus programs of student teaching depend on a number of factors. Among these are the education, experience, and responsibilities of the directors of off-campus student teaching and of the co-operating supervising teachers.

This article presents a general overview of the qualifications and responsibilities of the directors of student teaching and of the co-operating supervising teachers in 112 teacher-training institutions carrying on programs of off-campus student teaching in public co-operating schools. The data presented are part of those obtained in an eighteen-month study in these institutions carried on by the Arkansas State Teachers College.

SUBJECTS OF THE STUDY

Of the 112 directors of student teaching included in this investigation, one served two institutions in the same city. Fourteen, or 12.5 per cent, were women, all of whom served in state-supported or in privately endowed colleges of liberal arts.

The term "co-operating supervising teacher" is used in this article to mean a classroom teacher in the public co-operating school who directs (super-

vises) the work of the student teachers assigned to his room. Of the 112 co-operating supervising teachers who were included in this investigation, 71, or 63.4 per cent of those reporting, were women. One of the co-operating supervisors served in this capacity for two institutions in the same city.

EDUCATION OF DIRECTORS

Sixty-one of the directors of student teaching, more than half, reported that they held the Doctor's degree (Table 1). Twenty-one directors, or nearly a fifth of those reporting, had no training beyond the Master's degree. Six directors held only the Bachelor's degree.

The median director of off-campus student teaching was well qualified by academic training for the duties of his office. The data show, however, that a number of the directors had not had any courses in curriculum, supervision, or administration at the graduate level. The median for these directors of student teaching was from six to eight graduate semester hours in supervision, from six to eight graduate semester hours in curriculum, from eighteen to twenty graduate semester hours in administration, and from

fifty-five to fifty-nine semester hours in all professional education courses.

EXPERIENCE OF DIRECTORS

The median director of student teaching was also well qualified by experience for his duties. The median for directors was from six to eight years of

These two qualifications are mentioned together because the possession of one without the other would not be desirable. It is inconceivable that a director without a democratic philosophy of education would be able to radiate enthusiasm and to stimulate others to their best efforts.

TABLE 1

PROFESSIONAL DEGREES HELD BY 112 DIRECTORS OF STUDENT TEACHING AND BY 112 CO-OPERATING SUPERVISING TEACHERS

PROFESSIONAL DEGREE	DIRECTORS		SUPERVISING TEACHERS	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Doctor of Education.....	24	21.4
Doctor of Philosophy.....	37	33.0	3	2.7
Master's degree plus two years.....	17	15.2	14	12.5
Master's degree plus one year.....	13	11.6	18	16.1
Master's degree.....	15	13.4	45	40.1
Bachelor's degree.....	6	5.4	32	28.6
Total.....	112	100.0	112	100.0

experience in classroom teaching at all levels, from three to five years' experience in supervision at all levels, and from one to two years' experience as an administrator before employment as director of student teaching. Twenty-five directors, or 22.3 per cent, had had no administrative experience at any level. Twenty of these held the Doctor's degree; four, the Master's degree; and one, only the Bachelor's degree.

It is recognized that the mere possession of higher degrees and of much experience in school work does not qualify a person to be a director of student teaching. The director should also have a dynamic personality and a democratic philosophy of education.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF DIRECTORS

Character of responsibilities.—No attempt was made to ascertain the supervisory responsibilities of directors of student teaching. A study reported by Risheberger¹ indicated that 79 per cent of the directors of student teaching in his study were responsible for supervision of student teaching in one or more areas. Risheberger concludes: "In reality, all except 10.6 per cent of the directors reporting should be designated supervising directors of student teaching."

¹ Paul A. Risheberger, "A Survey of Student Teaching Facilities and Practices in Accredited Teacher Education Institutions of Pennsylvania," p. 2. Unpublished dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1946.

In the present study no attempt was made to ascertain the number of hours that directors of student teaching devoted to their duties. Risheberger found that the responsibility most frequently reported, in addition to other duties, was membership on committees.

Application for admission to student teaching.—Fifty-eight directors, or 51.8 per cent of those reporting, stated that application for admission to student teaching was approved by the director of student teaching; 20.5 per cent stated that approval for admission to student teaching rested in the hands of the dean of the college; 17 directors, or 15.2 per cent, said that a committee for student teaching approved admission; and only 12.5 per cent stated that application for admission to student teaching was approved by the head of the department of education.

Final authority concerning student teaching.—Fifty-six directors, or 50 per cent, stated that final authority in all matters pertaining to student teaching rested in the hands of the director of student teaching. Only one director reported that the college faculty had final authority in all matters pertaining to student teaching. Final authority rested with a committee for student teaching in 8.0 per cent of the institutions, and the dean of the college had the final word in 17.9 per cent of the institutions. Four directors, 3.6 per cent of the directors represented in this study, reported that final authority rested with some other

(unnamed) person or organization. Thirty-three directors did not respond to the question.

Assignment of student teachers to schools.—Eighty-five directors, or 75.9 per cent of those reporting, indicated that the director of student teaching had the responsibility for assigning student teachers to the public co-operating schools; 7.1 per cent stated that this responsibility rested with the head of the department of education; while 3.6 per cent of the institutions reported that the committee for student teaching carried this responsibility. Four directors, 3.6 per cent, reported that the area supervisor assigned student teachers, and 6.3 per cent of the directors stated that some other person or organization was charged with this duty.

Assignment of student teachers within the co-operating school.—Seventy-one directors, or 63.4 per cent of the directors reporting, stated that the responsibility for assigning student teachers within the public co-operating schools rested in the hands of the director of student teaching, and 20.5 reported that assignment of the student teachers was the duty of the superintendent of the public co-operating school. The committee for student teaching was charged with the responsibility in one institution, and the dean of the college discharged the function in another institution. Seven directors, or 6.3 per cent, stated that assignment of student teachers within the co-operating school was made by the head of the department of education, while

one director reported that the area supervisor made such assignments. Eight directors mentioned no specific arrangement.

EDUCATION OF SUPERVISING TEACHERS

As is shown in Table 1, only 2.7 per cent of the co-operating supervising teachers (two men and one woman) held the Doctor's degree, while 77, or 68.7 per cent, held the Master's degree. The Bachelor's degree was held by 28.6 per cent of the co-operating supervising teachers.

It is significant that, while 32 co-operating supervising teachers held no more than a Bachelor's degree, only three supervisors had less than three semester hours of credit in education at the graduate level. The median supervising teacher had from six to eight semester hours of credit in curriculum, from six to eight semester hours in supervision, and from fifteen to seventeen semester hours in professional courses at the graduate level.

EXPERIENCE OF SUPERVISING TEACHERS

One hundred and twelve co-operating supervisors, 100 per cent, had had experience as classroom teachers at the elementary, secondary, or college level. Median experience for the co-operating supervisors in classroom teaching at all levels was between nine and eleven years. The median supervisor had had from none to two years of experience in supervision and no experience as an administrator.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF SUPERVISING TEACHERS

An attempt was made to ascertain the per cent of the school day devoted to the supervision of student teaching, the maximum number of student teachers assigned to one co-operating teacher per hour, and the maximum number of student teachers assigned to one co-operating teacher each semester.

Time devoted to supervision of student teaching.—Table 2 shows that 20

TABLE 2

PER CENT OF SCHOOL DAY SPENT BY SUPERVISING TEACHERS IN SUPERVISION OF STUDENT TEACHERS IN 112 INSTITUTIONS

PER CENT OF SCHOOL DAY	SUPERVISING TEACHERS	
	Number	Per Cent
100	4	3.6
75-99	11	9.8
50-74	17	15.2
25-49	28	25.0
10-24	32	28.6
0-9	20	17.8
Total.....	112	100.0

co-operating teachers, or 17.8 per cent, spent less than 10 per cent of the school day solely in supervising student teachers in their charge. The median co-operating supervising teacher spent 28 per cent of the school day in supervising student teachers.

Student teachers assigned to supervising teacher in one class period.—Two co-operating supervisors, or 1.8 per cent of those reporting, stated that the maximum number of student teachers

assigned them for one class period was eight; two co-operating teachers reported seven; and one supervisor had six. The median supervising teacher had a maximum of one student teacher assigned him for one class period.

Student teachers assigned to supervising teacher in one semester.—Two co-operating supervisors, or 1.8 per cent, stated that the maximum number of student teachers assigned them for the semester was sixteen; one was assigned thirteen student teachers; and one was assigned twelve in a single semester. The median co-operating teacher stated that three student teachers was the maximum assigned.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE DATA

Two groups of persons co-operate in the immediate task of preparing prospective teachers through programs of off-campus student teaching: the directors of student teaching and the co-operating teachers in the public schools. As may be expected, the individuals composing these groups differ in points of view, professional experience, and in the ability to direct the activities of those who are in the process of becoming teachers. As might not be expected, the individuals composing these groups are in almost complete agreement that serious handicaps exist in the administration of programs of off-campus student teaching.

The data that were collected in this study prompt the following recommendations.

1. On the co-operating supervising teacher, perhaps more than on any other individual, rests the success of the student-teaching program. The

better the co-operating supervisor in the public school, the greater is the probability that the student teacher will have good professional preparation. The co-operating teacher's first responsibility, however, is to the pupils in his room. If, for any reason, the needs of the pupils exact most of the teacher's available time, no student teacher should be assigned to him.

2. Co-operating supervising teachers, upon attainment of commensurate standards in formal education and experience, should be given the same privileges and salaries that are enjoyed by the staff of the teacher-preparation institution. They should be given the same titles and ranks that are given the college staff.

3. Co-operating supervising teachers should be selected jointly by the authorities of the teacher-preparation institution and the officials of the public co-operating school.

4. The job of director of student teaching encompasses excessive demands which circumscribe the effectiveness of off-campus student teaching. To facilitate his job and to expedite the administration of the program, the director of student teaching should appoint a "committee for integration of off-campus student teaching," of which the director should serve as co-ordinator. The committee should include approximately equal numbers of representatives from the co-operating supervising teachers, the college supervisor of student teaching, the college instructors of professional courses, the college subject-matter instructors, the officials from the public co-operating school, and students.

FOR A BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF ENTERING STUDENTS¹

BLANCHE CAMDEN

Leyden Community High School, Franklin Park, Illinois



SAM will need help with reading. He will need help emotionally even more. As he feels now, he wouldn't be caught trying to learn." This side light on Sam is from a recorded interview of a high-school counselor with the boy's eighth-grade teacher. It is a part of a sizable amount of information which the elementary school gave the high school to help Sam get off to a good start. Knowing as much as possible about all students in advance of a first meeting in the classroom is important, but to know the "Sams" is particularly so. This article will describe some of the ways that have been used to get acquainted with the high school's newest group, the Freshmen.

Sources of information in the elementary schools, and later within the high school itself, are drawn upon by those persons responsible for program-making, orientation, and guidance of students. They, with the assistance of

others whom they may wish to call upon, collect information and make it readily accessible to teachers. The elementary schools further understanding through (1) passing along to the high school the cumulative records of the eighth-grade students, (2) granting personal interviews to counselors, (3) responding to questionnaires or check lists, and (4) making room on the school calendar for testing achievement at the end of Grade VIII.

THE CUMULATIVE RECORD

Since the elementary-school principal ordinarily has no need for the cumulative record after a student has completed the work in his school, he is willing to send it to the high school in which the student enrolls. A good cumulative record will show (1) the family history, (2) the health and physical record of the student, (3) the progress at each grade level, (4) the results of achievement and intelligence tests, (5) attendance, and (6) recommendations concerning guidance in high school.

Most record blanks have space for the inclusion of such facts as the rela-

¹ This article is based upon the author's experience as a teacher of remedial English in the Simonsen High School at Jefferson City, Missouri, and in the Leyden Community High School at Franklin Park, Illinois. Drawing upon her experience in the two situations, she is able to write about procedures used to bring about a better understanding of students.

tions of the student with his peer group and his general social development; but much of this personal information, so important to understanding, is often omitted. Cumulative records may need to be supplemented by a personal interview.

RECORDED INTERVIEW WITH THE TEACHER

A recording machine in the hands of a school counselor, or any person skilled in interviewing, facilitates the work of collecting information. The counselor goes into the elementary school with the request that she be permitted to interview the teachers who know the eighth-grade students who will be entering the high school. She aims at a conversational and informal interview. The ease of recording and the fact that the information is to be handled discretely make for unhampered discussion. If the school is small, all students can be discussed. The questioning follows this pattern:

1. What do you know about this student?
2. In what ways has he succeeded? Failed?
3. What is his reading ability? Ability in mathematics? If there is a deficiency, to what do you attribute it? Has he been given any special training to correct deficiencies? What tests were used to measure his ability? Do you feel that they gave an accurate measurement?
4. Are there evidences of emotional disturbance? How does the student work with others? Are there individuals who have a good or bad effect on him? How secure is he in his home life? Are the parents too exacting? Do they exert too much pressure on him to succeed?
5. What health factors enter the picture?

Is there a vision or hearing handicap? Is his general health good?

6. What are his special interests? Can he create, for example, through writing or art? Does he excel at the things he creates or do they serve chiefly as emotional outlets?

7. What is the attitude of his parents toward education? Toward school and the present teachers? How much formal education have the parents had? What home contacts have been made? What is the occupation of the father? Should the family income be classified as low, medium, or high? What is the standard of living?

8. What would you recommend that we attempt to do for the student in the high school? What regular courses should he pursue? What extra-curriculum activities should he follow?

The following excerpts from interviews at which Charles and Ted were discussed show what can be learned.

INTERVIEW ABOUT CHARLES

Charles is a good-looking boy. I had him in summer school. . . . He must have been retained somewhere along the line because he is older than the other students. He is a long, lanky boy and really good in basketball. But even in sports he takes defeat and adverse criticism poorly. He thinks everyone has it in for him. He argues with the coach, and he resents being fouled.

He says the other students make fun of him when he reads; so I do not have him read aloud in front of them. He reads at the fourth-grade level. No special training has been given him. I doubt that his parents can afford to send him to a reading clinic or hire a tutor for him. He will try hard in reading but will not try in spelling.

He wants attention and is extremely sensitive. . . . He cannot be left alone in the room. If left alone, he does such things as splashing ink on the bulletin board and tearing down the displays.

At home the mother has given up manag-

ing him. He is an only child. She has been made nervous to the point of illness over his incorrigibility. It seems that both parents appreciate the school and want the boy to conform. There is no evidence that undue pressure to succeed comes from the home.

Charles has only one buddy. That is Ted.

INTERVIEW ABOUT TED

Ted is another reading and spelling problem. He is at the girl-crazy stage. He is an only son. There are four or five sisters. One has been in the same grade and room with him. She does not get along well in school either. I think the fact that he feels he and his sister are always being singled out as a pair of poor students is not good.

Ted and Charles are a bad influence on each other. They should be scheduled in different classes. Like Charles, Ted is guilty of deliberate vandalism and seems to have been uncontrolled all of his life.

Ted does not like the reading-improvement work we are giving him. He reads on a fifth-grade level. His arithmetic skill is a little better. A foreign language is spoken in the home. No school visitation person has visited the family.

Ted will like basketball, and he might like to play the drum in the band.

Reporting such as is shown in these excerpts makes claim to helpfulness rather than completeness. In program-planning and other guidance, it is helpful to know about special abilities and interests just as it is to know about deficiencies. It is well to know the attitude the teachers have had toward the student and that often little has been done to get at the causes of objectionable behavior and poor academic achievement.

Drawing upon the information obtained about Charles, we conclude that the only interest at which he has

been successful has been basketball. Since the high-school teachers will know of this interest, they may be able to make him feel secure and happy in physical-education classes. He wants to learn to read and must be given a chance in a reading-improvement class. It should not be too difficult to make the transition from interest in reading to interest in spelling. His elementary school is one in which instruction in music and art has been sharply curtailed. No one has attempted to reach him through those courses. It is possible, then, that the high-school courses in art, music, and shop may appeal to him. That he has emotional problems one can be sure. He will need to be a special charge of the counselor for boys.

Ted's high-school program should look much like the program outlined for Charles. Since both boys are over-aggressive and said to be bad for each other, they will be scheduled in different sections of academic courses, such as English. In basketball they should probably be on the same team.

THE CHECK LIST

Check lists have a limited value. It takes time to fill them out, and the person responsible may feel there is no immediate pressure to complete them. There is a tendency to give only the information definitely called for, with none of the desired extra comments needed for adequate understanding. People are sometimes reluctant to write down information that they would give freely in an interview.

However, in certain situations it is better to solicit specific information through a check list than through the interview or other means. This list, aimed at obtaining specific information, has been used:

1. List the names of your eighth-grade students having special interest or ability in music, art, speech activities or dramatics, writing, and athletics.
2. List those who will need guidance in adjusting socially. Include the names of those students who, rejected by their peer group, withdraw from social activities.
3. List students who have a physical handicap. Be sure to mention defective vision or hearing.
4. Give the names of any who will need to work for their lunch.
5. List those students who have a handicap in speech, reading, spelling, or arithmetic. Information on probable causes and any corrective program followed will be helpful.

ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

The elementary-school principals make room on the calendar for achievement testing at the end of the eighth year. Students are tested for skill in mathematics and reading before entering high school. In most cases they will be told the results in grade equivalents, percentile ranks, or in whatever terms they can understand. They ought to be made aware

of their weaknesses in essential skills but given to understand that improvement through the high-school corrective program is possible. Since the testing will be of direct value to the high school for case study and guidance, it is the practice for the high school to furnish the tests, administer them, and check results.

AIDING STUDENTS IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

Having in hand the information that the elementary schools have supplied, the high school then uses its own resources and methods to become better acquainted with the students. These include procedures employed in many high schools, such as (1) holding conferences on special cases by the teachers concerned, (2) studying personal information sheets and interest inventories filled out by the students, (3) retesting achievement and intelligence, (4) having the students write autobiographies, and (5) maintaining close contacts with the homes. Through use of the information obtained from the elementary schools and the further guidance measures carried out in the high school, the students' adjustment at the higher level is greatly assisted.

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SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

I. CURRICULUM, METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION, AND MEASUREMENT

WALTER J. MOORE

University of Illinois



THE term "instruction" here includes curriculum, methods of teaching and study and supervision, and measurement (or evaluation). The vertical scope of secondary education, as represented in the items of the list, extends through junior high school, senior high school, and junior college.

It is not the purpose of this list of references to furnish a complete bibliography of writings in the fields designated. Accordingly, in areas with especially large numbers of items in the published literature, some good items have been omitted, and the items which have been retained are representative rather than comprehensive.

CURRICULUM¹

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¹ See also Item 621 (Beals) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1952, issue of the *School Review*; Item 764 (Johnson) in the December, 1952, issue of the same journal; and Item 781 (Mickelson) in the December, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

School Principals, XXXVI (April, 1952), 311-17.

Declares that three areas of improvement in which progress has been made are (1) guidance, (2) establishment of classes for the educationally and mentally retarded, and (3) the practice of democracy on the staff level.

2. BATCHELDER, HOWARD T., and ENGLE, SHIRLEY H. *Some Characteristics of the Secondary School of the Future in the Light of Modern Developments*. Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XXVII, No. 3. Bloomington, Indiana: Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana University, 1951. Pp. 34.

Presents a selective summary of the group thinking of workshop participants regarding the need for changes in the secondary school.

3. BRANDS, LOUIS G. "The Core Curriculum in the Secondary Schools," *Progressive Education*, XXIX (February, 1952), 141-43.

Asserts that reorganization of the secondary schools along core principles is vital and stresses need for study of the elements involved in planning for the core curriculum.

4. BROWN, BLANCHE; HILLER, CARL; and BECK, CHARLES F. "The Museum and the Core Program," *High Points in the*

Work of the High Schools of New York City, XXXIV (April, 1952), 12-15.
Describes an experiment in museum orientation with emphasis upon applications to the core program in the secondary school.

5. CAFFIN, MILTON D. "Recasting the Secondary Curriculum," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City, XXXIV* (February, 1952), 27-31.
Suggests modifications of existing curriculum practices, with particular emphasis on the development of the general diploma course.

6. CANTOR, NATHANIEL. "The Reality-centered School," *Teachers College Record, LIII* (March, 1952), 312-16.
Maintains that the "reality-centered" school strikes a balance between the needs of the child and the needs of the community.

7. CASWELL, HOLLIS L. "Postwar Trends in Curriculum Development," *NEA Journal, XLI* (February, 1952), 93-95.
Delineates trends relating to organization and content of the curriculum as well as to procedures of curriculum development and calls attention to the challenges of unsolved problems.

8. "Conference on Curriculum Improvement," *Teachers College Record, LIII* (December, 1951), 121-49.
Reprints addresses devoted to problems of curriculum improvement by Goodwin Watson ("Uncertain Voyage"), Nathaniel Cantor ("People and Uncertainty"), Robert Saudek ("Radio in Today's World"), and L. Thomas Hopkins ("The Certainties in Our Profession").

9. COOK, LLOYD ALLEN. "The School's Role in Relation to Area Youth Agencies," *Educational Leadership, IX* (January, 1952), 225-29.
Calls for a partnership between the school and community agencies, for "where social lags, problems, needs arise, where change is rampant, new services are a necessity."

10. DEATON, JOSEPH C. SR., "Core-organized School in Action," *California Journal of Secondary Education, XXVII* (March, 1952), 133-38.
Describes the operation of a total-core program at the junior high school level, considering administrative implications, the cost of operation, and activities typical of core groups.

11. DOUGLASS, HARL R. "The Role of the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXXVI* (April, 1952), 303-10.
Calls, as a pioneer in the junior high school movement, for recognition of the importance of social and emotional adjustment of youth and argues that the major role of the junior high school lies in providing continuity of such adjustment.

12. *Education in the United States of America*. United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1951, Special Series No. 3. Pp. iv+62.
A bulletin for foreign visitors designed to provide general background information through a discussion of the American school system from elementary through adult levels.

13. EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION. *Education for All American Youth: A Further Look*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1952. Pp. xii+402.
A revision of the document first appearing in 1944 which includes additional chapters reporting on recent developments and currently important problems in secondary education.

14. FRANZEN, CARL G. F. "Life Adjustment and the Four Major Objectives of Secondary Education," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXXV* (October, 1951), 99-111.

Reasons that curriculum change from within is dependent upon reorganization and revitalization of the information of each course in such a way that it contributes to life-adjustment education for every youth.

15. GODDARD, ARTHUR. "Animadversions on the Core Curriculum," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIV (April, 1952), 28-39.
Evaluates the core program and, while endorsing some devices utilized for enrichment, objects to claimed prevalence of "Pansophism, the incompetent teaching of subject matter, reduction of confusion of the categories of subject matter, the elimination of intrinsic values, and the slanting of the entire curriculum in the direction of the core."

16. GRACE, ALONZO G. "Desirable Characteristics of a Modern Secondary School," *NEA Journal*, XLI (March, 1952), 145-47.
Lists twelve characteristics which are adjudged desirable for secondary schools in our time.

17. HERIOTT, M. E. (chairman). "Organizing the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (December, 1951), 6-157.
Entire issue devoted to a report prepared by the Committee on Junior High School Problems of the California Association of Secondary School Principals. Considers organization and administrative factors, suggests ways and means of improvement, and indicates some prevailing influences which are likely to produce transitions.

18. HOGAN, CHARLES A. "The Study Day—An Experiment in Curriculum Change," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 180-88.
Recounts highlights of long experience with "The Study Day" and describes its utility as a vehicle for curriculum change.

19. "How Can We Improve the High-School Curriculum on the State Level?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (April, 1952), 208-20.
A series of four papers addressed to the same general topic. Paul D. Collier maintains that the success of improvement programs depends on faculty identification of problems; sufficient time for orientation, exploration, and study; and funds to implement the program undertaken. William I. King recounts factors hampering curriculum development in sparsely populated areas and offers five suggestions believed helpful in advancing change. Werner C. Dieckmann believes that the state-wide conference can highlight problems needing study at the local level and that adequate consultant service and study materials must be provided. Arthur Carpenter outlines six phases of the development of state courses of study as devices designed to improve the curriculum.

20. JACOBSON, P. B. "Planning and the Curriculum," *Progressive Education*, XXIX (February, 1952), 135-37.
Advances belief that planning the curriculum is a responsibility of the superintendent and his administrative staff and that "the planning must be more adequately done with respect to both time and money."

21. JEWETT, JAMES P. "Whose Needs—Concrete Individual versus Abstract Society?" *Educational Forum*, XVI (May, 1952), 421-26.
Decries emphasis put upon needs of the individual as opposed to the society's needs.

22. *Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth*. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1951, No. 22. Pp. iv + 108.
Presents in permanent form materials previously issued in mimeographed and offset formats under the title "Every Youth in High School—Life Adjustment Education for Each."

23. MACKENZIE, GORDON N. "Cooperative Testing-in-Action and Implementing of

Ideas," *Teachers College Record*, LIII (May, 1952), 423-38.

Examines three important aspects of professional life and development, curriculum ideas, curriculum research or problem-solving, and the preparation of teachers and other curriculum workers.

24. MERRITT, ELEANOR, and HARAP, HENRY. *Trends in Production of Teaching Guides: A Survey of Courses of Study Published in 1948 through 1950*. Nashville, Tennessee: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1952. Pp. 32.

A critical study of 543 representative curriculum guides. Reports general trends as they apply to all courses of study, such as format, leadership, experimentation, objectives, and units of work, as well as tendencies in each of the subjects.

25. NATIONAL COUNCIL OF INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS. "The Functions of Independent Secondary Education in the United States," *School and Society*, LXXIV (September 8, 1951), 145-50.

Discusses the functions of independent schools and calls for a "completely disinterested, thorough, and factual study of the secondary independent schools of the United States."

26. OLIVER, ALBERT I. "Overcoming Curriculum Problems in the Small High School," *Education at Mid-Century*, pp. 247-56. Thirty-eighth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. LII, No. 1. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1951.

Throws light on a perplexing problem facing small high schools by considering (1) guiding principles, (2) a common-learnings program, (3) needs for special education, (4) ways of expanding the curriculum.

27. PERDEW, PHILLIP W. "The Secondary School Program in World War II," *History of Education Journal*, III (Winter, 1952), 43-48. Ann Arbor, Michigan: National Society of College Teachers of Education.

Cites the many and varied changes made in the secondary-school curriculum in order to relate it more effectively to the war effort and shows wherein certain criticisms were valid and others totally unjustified by the facts.

28. PIERCE, PAUL R. "Co-operative Curriculum Improvement in Chicago Public Schools," *Educational Forum*, XVI (May, 1952), 459-67.

Describes the origin and the implementation of an improvement program which utilized a framework built upon nine major functions of living and was designed to develop activities appropriate to the preschool curriculum and through various stages to adulthood.

29. RISTOW, LESTER W. "Democratic Action in Curriculum Development: Opportunities and Problems," *California Journal of Educational Research*, III (May, 1952), 104-8.

Indicates that democratic action in curriculum development must begin with the education of committee members and that such action matures only when individuals concerned learn to work together.

30. ROBB, FELIX C. "The South and Its Regional Education Program," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXII (Winter, 1952), 26-48.

Traces the background and development of the Southern Regional Education program, describes progress being made in the attack upon regional problems, and delineates factors impeding the optimal effectiveness of the plan.

31. RUSSELL, EDWARD J. "Curriculum Design for Junior High School," *Nation's Schools*, L (August, 1952), 60-62.

Reports on long-range plans for curriculum changes focused on present-day needs and those projected over a decade.

32. SANFORD, CHARLES W. and OTHERS. *The Story in Nineteen Schools: Reports of*

Progress on Curriculum Developmental Projects. Sponsored by the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program. Circular Series A, No. 51. Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 10. Springfield, Illinois: State Superintendent of Instruction, 1950.

One of the reports of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program which relates how classroom and laboratory practices in nineteen schools have changed to the degree that administrators, teachers, and pupils believe that learning has improved for the pupils concerned.

33. SIMNEY, LUCILLE. "A Teacher Looks at the Double-Period Program," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (March, 1952), 146-47.

Relates reactions and cites advantages and disadvantages of the double-period program at the junior high school level.

34. STEINBERG, SAMUEL. "The Core Curriculum: Menace or Promise?" *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIV (April, 1952), 24-27.

Envisions advantages accruing from the core approach while drawing attention to cautions to be observed if the program is to demonstrate maximum effectiveness.

35. "A Study of Core Curricula in Kansas: Four Programs Described," *University of Kansas Bulletin of Education*, VI (November, 1951), 1-8.

A follow-up study of core programs at the junior and senior high school levels which describes progress in four school systems.

36. WRIGHT, GRACE S.; GAUMNITZ, WALTER H., and McDONALD, EVERETT A., JR. *Education Unlimited: A Community High School in Action*. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1951, No. 5. Pp. iv+36.

Shows how one small high school was able to overcome limitations of financial resources, inadequate plant and equipment, small enrolments, restricted curriculum

offerings, and small staff in providing a program designed to serve all youth.

37. ZIRBES, LAURA. "Our Research Responsibilities," *Educational Leadership*, IX (May, 1952), 485-88.

Presents an "uncontroversial analytical consideration of a long-term curriculum concern with planning, and a considered approach to research as a substitute for unconsidered curriculum change or controversial criticism."

METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION²

38. ANDREE, ROBERT G. "Discovering the Needs of City Youth," *Nation's Schools*, XLIX (February, 1952), 39-42.

Presents a new type of questionnaire devised to get at *patterns* of needs rather than *isolated* needs of adolescents.

39. BARNES, FRED P. "Materials of Learning—and Learning," *Educational Leadership*, IX (April, 1952), 402-8.

Delineates four progressive phases in the learning process and calls for definition, selection, utilization, and evaluation of materials which are necessary for purposeful implementation of the learning phases described.

40. BLANC, SAM S. "Vitalizing the Classroom," *Educational Leadership*, IX (April, 1952), 444-47.

Describes techniques of utilization of materials representing tangible experiences—objects, specimens, models, and mock-ups.

41. BRIGGS, THOMAS H., and JUSTMAN, JOSEPH. *Improving Instruction through Supervision* (A revision of *Improving Instruction*). New York: Macmillan Co., 1952. Pp. x+524.

A revision of a standard textbook, concerned with supervision at elementary- and secondary-school levels. Treats of time-tested

² See also Items 576 (Mallinson and Crumrine) and 599 (*After Teen-Agers Quit School*) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1952, issue of the *School Review*.

principles as well as recent developments in education which have affected the role and responsibility of the supervisor.

42. CANTOR, NATHANIEL. "Focus and Function in Group Discussion," *Teachers College Record*, LIII (April, 1952), 375-82. Criticizes group discussion and group dynamics for looseness of structure, absence of focus, and denial of psychological realities. Presents a "functional" approach to group discussion and conference techniques.

43. CARTER, HAROLD D. "What Are Some of the Basic Problems in Analysis of Study Techniques?" *California Journal of Educational Research*, II (September, 1951), 170-74. Reports a study which sought to determine through a standardized set of questions, the consistent differences in methods of study reported by high- and low-achieving students.

44. CHILDS, GAYLE B. "Supervised Correspondence Study," *Clearing House*, XXVI (September, 1951), 3-6. Offers a report of the effectiveness of supervised correspondence study as compared with regular classroom instruction in terms of subject-matter achievement only.

45. COHN, MURRAY A. "Criteria of an Ideal Lesson," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIV (June, 1952), 25-31. Offers criteria for an ideal lesson developed by a staff for a specific content field but with implications for the development of techniques applicable in any area.

46. COOKE, EDWARD W. "Ability Grouping," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 79-83. Describes a three-way program of grouping in certain subject areas and draws implications for other fields.

47. DAHLOR, H. W. "Contribution of Work Experience," *Problems in Individual Analysis*, pp. 65-73. Kansas State Teachers College Bulletin, Vol. XLVII, No. 7. Pittsburg, Kansas: Kansas State Teachers College, 1951.

Lists types of information which may be secured about high-school pupils through supervised work experience and suggests techniques helpful in the evaluation of such experience.

48. DOBBS, HARRISON ALLEN. "How Teachers Feel and the Welfare of Children," *School Review*, LX (January, 1952), 15-23. Defines appropriate attitudes for teachers and makes ten suggestions that aid in building up strength in the areas delineated.

49. GILCHRIST, ROBERT S. "Are Schools Meeting the Imperative Needs of Youth?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (October, 1951), 82-87. Reports practices in sixty-two schools and concludes that "the single most important way" for a school to meet the imperative needs of youth is for the principal to give curriculum leadership.

50. GRAGG, MARGARET, and WEY, HERBERT. "What Supervision?" *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (June, 1952), 133-35. Reports a study of teachers in their first year of professional service as secondary-school personnel and offers several suggestions believed helpful in coping with in-service problems.

51. GUNTHER, KARL. "Techniques and Findings of Student Follow-up Studies in California," *California Journal of Educational Research*, III (May, 1952), 113-17. Analyzes data from twenty-six investigations which sought to ascertain what happens to school graduates as the basis for guidance practices and curriculum revision programs.

52. "How Much Work Experience in Our Programs for Youth?" *Bulletin of the Na-*

tional Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXXVI (March, 1952), 179-89.

In the first of two articles, Wilson H. Ivins points out that it is necessary to ascertain how much satisfactory work experience students are getting, the nature of group and individual needs that will be served by work experience, the types available, and the costs involved. Warren C. Seyfert considers such questions as credit for work experience, part-time work, and guidance service experience.

53. HUNT, HEROLD C. "Critical Issues in Secondary Education," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (April, 1952), 292-302.

Identifies critical issues as inability of the high school to retain youth in school, revitalizing the curriculum, military training, proselyting of high-school athletes, attacks on education, costs of education, and scarcities of facilities.

54. LESSER, MILTON S. "Getting Acquainted with Pupil Interests," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIII (December, 1951), 12-15.

Describes a questionnaire study devised to shed light on problems involving apathy and lack of motivation apparent in some average or below-average learners.

55. LONG, WATT A. "Senior High School Study Halls—Their Educational Function," *California Journal of Educational Research*, III (March, 1952), 74-79.

Reports a study which surveyed 2,820 students enrolled in 53 study halls to ascertain the external and internal conditions which affect the pursuit of satisfactory independent study.

56. MACKENZIE, GORDON N., and COREY, STEPHEN M. "A Conception of Educational Leadership," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 9-14.

Defines "leadership" and calls attention to some of the situational variables that have a bearing upon the identification, selection, and exercise of leadership.

57. MOORE, CLARENCE C. "The Good and Bad Points of 4 Teaching Methods," *Clearing House*, XXVI (February, 1952), 340-44.

Identifies four teaching methods, analyzes favorable and unfavorable consequences of their application, and considers possibilities inherent in other methods.

58. OSTRANDER, R. H. "Instructional Materials: Identify—Don't Censor," *Clearing House*, XXVI (October, 1951), 72-73.

Suggests a positive approach to the selection of instructional materials through the use of a committee which "censors" nothing but works to detect propaganda and identify it for what it is, so that it may be used wisely in the schools."

59. OVSIEW, LEON, and OTHERS. *Making the Core Work*. New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, 1951. Pp. x+54.

Presents a "how-to-do-it" pamphlet developed by a junior high school faculty for implementing a core program as a way of teaching.

60. POND, FREDERICK L. "Determining the Needs of Youth," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (October, 1951), 88-98.

Describes a questionnaire submitted to 4,410 youth to ascertain whether effective curriculum practices are being used in achieving student needs.

61. ROHWEDER, M. C. "Shaping a Course To Meet Student Needs and Limitations," *Minnesota Journal of Education*, XXXI (May, 1951), 40-41.

Describes ways of developing courses designed to meet needs of college-preparatory and terminal students in high school.

62. ROMINE, STEPHEN. "What One Teacher Can Do," *Clearing House*, XXVI (October, 1951), 111-13.

Discusses four areas within which the classroom teacher may work with pupils for improvement: (1) understanding pupils better, (2) formulating educational goals, (3) providing suitable content and organization, (4) using appropriate instructional methods.

63. SPEARS, HAROLD. "Ten Features of Good High School Classrooms," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (May, 1952), 255-62.

Presents outstanding features of a good instructional program including methods, teacher attitudes, school atmosphere, and basic appreciations of the nature of youth and fundamental American ideals.

64. SRYGLEY, SARA KRENTZMAN, and SRYGLEY, THEODORE Q. "Materials of Instruction in Problem-centered Teaching," *Educational Leadership*, IX (April, 1952), 425-29.

Identifies barriers to effective use of materials, enumerates types of materials needed, and suggests ways for improving their use in problem-centered teaching.

65. *Suggestions to Teachers of Experimental Core Classes*. Curriculum Bulletin, 1950-51 Series, No. 2. Brooklyn: Board of Education of the City of New York, 1951. Pp. vi+104.

Presents representative units and suggestions growing out of experimentation with the core program for slow learners at the ninth- and tenth-grade levels. Has implications as well for core classes of heterogeneous groups and for bright pupils.

66. VANDER WERF, LESTER. "Toward Better Supervisors," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 5-8.

Describes a class in supervision concerned with problems of modernizing teacher attitudes, with student evaluation, with difficulties of teachers under inept supervisors, with teacher evaluation, and with professional ethics.

67. VARS, GORDON F. "Problems of a Beginning Core Teacher," *Educational Leadership*, IX (October, 1951), 12-16.

Identifies problem areas as proper use of longer blocks of time, development of skills of democratic participation, and awareness of needs, problems, and concerns of groups.

68. *Vitalizing Secondary Education: Report of the First Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth*. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1951, No. 3. Pp. vi+106.

Summarizes some of the Commission's activities "in democratizing American secondary education through efforts designed to retain in school all youth of high-school age and to provide appropriate educational programs for them."

69. WANN, KENNETH D. "Teachers as Researchers," *Educational Leadership*, IX (May, 1952), 489-95.

Points out that teachers' feelings of satisfaction resulting from participation in action research outweighed difficulties involved and reveals ways of facilitating curriculum research of the co-operative action type.

70. "What Supervisory Practices Promote Teacher Growth and Co-operation?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (April, 1952), 17-32.

In a joint discussion of this topic, Carl G. F. Franzen tells how "improvement sheets" were developed as supervisory instruments for improving methods of secondary-school supervision, and Lloyd W. Ashby enumerates some of the principles of supervision, with suggestions of techniques for implementing the principles.

MEASUREMENT³

71. ABRAHAMSON, STEPHEN. "School Rewards and Social-Class Status," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXXI (January 16, 1952), 8-15.

³ See also Item 558 (Gilmore) in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1952,

Reports a research project which sought to determine whether children of higher social-class backgrounds tend to receive more than their proportionate share of rewards in twenty-four home-room groups in six junior high schools.

72. BARROWS, E. F. "Grades vs. Scores: Students Prefer Best-Effort Scoring," *Clearing House*, XXVI (January, 1952), 271-74.

Describes a system of marking which utilizes "scores" similar to the point systems in most popular sports and defends its utility in factual subjects.

73. BOLMEIER, E. C. "Administrative Aspects of the Standardized Testing Program," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 62-69.

Maintains that standardized testing programs are appropriate for a school system if attention is given to (1) responsibility for the initiation and conduct of the program, (2) purposes of the tests, (3) areas for testing, (4) selecting the tests, (5) scheduling the administration of tests, (6) personnel for testing, (7) scoring the tests, and (8) utilizing the test scores.

74. BROWNELL, WILLIAM A. "Are We Putting Research to Work?" *California Journal of Educational Research*, III (March, 1952), 51-60.

Points out that, as research specialists, teachers are meeting fairly well the responsibility of improving educational practice and that research results are at work in modifying educational procedures and programs. Cautions against moving too quickly from research results to practical applications.

75. CARTER, ROBERT SCRIVEN. "How Invalid Are Marks Assigned by Teachers?" *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLIII (April, 1952), 218-28.

Issue of the *School Review*; Item 614 (Rothney) in the September, 1952, issue; Item 677 (Lindencamp) in the October, 1952, issue; and Items 721 (Davis), 730 (Reile and Briggs), and 734 (Tussing) in the November, 1952, issue.

Reports an investigation which sought to determine whether teachers tend to favor one sex and whether the sex favored tends to be determined by the sex of the teacher.

76. CONRAD, HERBERT S. "The Appraisal of Personal Qualities," *Measurement and Evaluation in the Improvement of Education*, pp. 49-57. American Council on Education Series, Vol. XV. Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 46. Washington: American Council on Education, 1951.

Reviews methods currently used to appraise personality and recommends techniques which recognize the "desirability of verifying personality appraisals by comparing predictions of specific behavior with the behavior that is actually observed."

77. COREY, STEPHEN M. "Educational Research and the Solution of Practical Problems," *Educational Leadership*, IX (May, 1952), 478-84.

Attempts to show the relation between subjective methods of making practical decisions and "research" carried on by professionals. Declares that these differ only in degree of precision and eventually in the degree of confidence which are placed in results.

78. CUTTS, NORMA E. "Use of Tests by the Classroom Teacher," *Measurement and Evaluation in the Improvement of Education*, pp. 117-20. American Council on Education Series, Vol. XV. Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 46. Washington: American Council on Education, 1951.

Indicates eleven ways in which an adequate testing program may assist the classroom teacher, details results of a survey of actual practices, and makes suggestions for improvement in the utilization of tests.

79. DIEDERICH, PAUL B. "Planning a Comprehensive Evaluation Program," *Measurement and Evaluation in the Improvement of Education*, pp. 58-67. American Council on Education Series, Vol. XV.

Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 46. Washington: American Council on Education, 1951.

Outlines a design for a comprehensive evaluation program and discusses necessity for obtaining continuous evidence.

80. *Evaluating Pupil Progress*. Bulletin of the California Department of Education, Vol. XXI, No. 6. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1952. Pp. viii+184.

Emphasizes instructional values to be derived from an all-inclusive program of evaluation which has as its major purpose the assisting of teachers in gathering and interpreting evidences of growth in skills, knowledges, attitudes, and understandings.

81. "Improving School Holding Power: Some Research Proposals." United States Office of Education Circular No. 291, 1951. Pp. 86 (processed).

Reports on development of research proposals for large city systems leading to improved holding power and pupil adjustment.

82. KELLER, IRVIN A. "A More Comprehensive and Significant Marking System," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 70-78.

Portrays variations in existing marking systems, and describes a dual system utilizing comparative and individual schemes.

83. KOEHLER, WARREN. "Objective Tests in Independent Schools," *Measurement and Evaluation in the Improvement of Education*, pp. 124-28. American Council on Education Series, Vol. XV. Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 46. Washington: American Council on Education, 1951.

Shows how one independent school utilizes tests in selection and guidance of students and calls attention to the need for more effective and efficient instruments for the appraisal of personality characteristics.

84. KVARACEUS, W. C. "Prerequisites to an Effective Testing Program," *School Review*, LX (January, 1952), 24-29.

Lists several conditions which must prevail if a school is attempting to set up an effective testing program.

85. LAFRANCHI, EDWARD H. "High School Marks: Comparative or Individual," *School Executive*, LXXI (July, 1952), 51-54.

Suggests that high-school courses in any one school could be divided into two groups: those that will be evaluated and marked on an absolute scale and those in which varying individual capacities will be considered.

86. LANGMUIR, CHARLES R. "Errors, Estimates, and Samples—The Indispensable Concepts," *Measurement and Evaluation in the Improvement of Education*, pp. 68-81. American Council on Education Series, Vol. XV. Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 46. Washington: American Council on Education, 1951.

Explains the significance and interrelationships of errors, estimates, and samples and shows how these concepts are basic to the construction and use of tests.

87. LINDQUIST, E. F. "Some Criteria of an Effective High School Testing Program," *Measurement and Evaluation in the Improvement of Education*, pp. 17-33. American Council on Education Series, Vol. XV. Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 46. Washington: American Council on Education, 1951.

Enumerates criteria currently utilized in testing programs and suggests the specifications for an improved type of program.

88. LLOYD, R. GRANN. "Research for the Classroom Teacher," *Negro Educational Review*, III (April, 1952), 52-56.

Enumerates five advantages accruing to the classroom teacher in the application of action research to the solution of a problematic situation or condition.

89. MCKENNA, HELEN; PARRISH, LOUISE; WASKIN, YVONNE; and BOYE, CHARLES L. "Evaluating Classroom Teaching," *Progressive Education*, XXIX (March, 1952), 176-81. Recounts attempts to evaluate effectiveness of classroom teaching by group analysis and details some "blocks" encountered.

90. MANLEY, C. BENTON. "How Should the Secondary School Evaluate and Record Student Progress?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 130-35. Enumerates seven steps in developing a program of evaluation.

91. PASSOW, A. HARRY, and MACKENZIE, GORDON N. "Research in Group Behavior Shows Need for New Teaching Skills," *Nation's Schools*, XLIX (April, 1952), 71-73. Reviews research findings in the group-dynamics areas and offers suggestions on types of skills in teaching necessary to implement these findings.

92. REDIGER, JOSEPH. "Shall We 'Group' Students in Our High School?" *American School Board Journal*, CXXIII (November, 1951), 29-30. Considers the question whether high-school students should be taught in homogeneous sections when "natural" selective factors do not operate or should be taught in unselected classes.

93. ROCKOWITZ, MURRAY. "Know Thyself: Techniques in Pupil Self-Evaluation," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIII (October, 1951), 50-56. Presents sixteen techniques which may be utilized by pupils in evaluating themselves.

94. SCATES, DOUGLAS E. "Some Problems Connected with Evaluation," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLV (April, 1952), 599-608.

95. SIMS, VERNER M. "A Technique for Measuring Social Class Identification," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XI (Winter, 1951, Part One), 541-48. Describes the construction and evaluation of a scale designed to reveal the status which an individual unconsciously assigns himself.

96. STANLEY, JULIAN C., JR. "On the Adequacy of Standardized Tests Administered to Extreme Norm Groups," *Peabody Journal of Education*, XXIX (November, 1951), 145-53. Demonstrates how failure to consider factorial content and difficulty level in the utilization of standardized tests reduces reliability of instruments.

97. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "Learning To Know Students," *Problems in Individual Analysis*, pp. 7-20; "Anecdotal Records," *ibid.*, pp. 47-64; "Cumulative Records," *ibid.*, pp. 74-84. Kansas State Teachers College Bulletin, Vol. XLVII, No. 7. Pittsburg, Kansas: Kansas State Teachers College, 1951. In three articles, Traxler (1) delineates ten areas in which information is needed for guidance purposes and evaluates techniques commonly used to secure data; (2) suggests steps to be followed in introducing an anecdotal-record plan for evaluating pupil behavior; and (3) discusses cumulative records.

98. "What Kind of Testing Program in Today's Secondary School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (April, 1952), 154-66. Two papers on the same topic. J. Thomas Hastings maintains that curriculum evaluation and student guidance constitute the basic purposes of tests built on four principles which he explains. Elmer J. Erickson gives his definition of a good program.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

HAROLD RUGG, *The Teacher of Teachers: Frontiers of Theory and Practice in Teacher Education.* New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. x+308. \$4.00.

The general thesis of Rugg's book is: The teacher of teachers occupies not only a strategic but a crucial position within a democratic society; the position and its responsibilities become far more important in times of social crisis.

Two subsidiary theses are significant. First, the teachers of teachers should concern themselves with fundamental ideas, principles, or theory. Second, they should be concerned with the question of control of teacher education. The two problems, of design and of control, are inescapably joined. The author goes on to say that, generally, leaders in teacher education have not been concerned with the bold development of new ideas but have naively accepted the current dominant ideas, that they have been concerned less with basic concepts than with operational mechanics. They have not had sufficient prestige to exercise much control.

Rugg's volume is a fiery plea that those in teacher education recognize their opportunity and responsibility and do something about it. Anyone familiar with the soggy mediocrity (with certain brilliant exceptions) of teacher education may wonder what will come of the call to action.

The plea is backed up by one of Rugg's characteristic summary-interpretations of the history of teacher education in this country. The period 1890-1920 developed the "conforming way." The "creative way," isolated examples of which occurred from the beginning, developed chiefly from 1920 onward. In the final part of the book, entitled

"Frontiers of Theory and Practice," one chapter elaborates with vigor the outlines of the necessary "foundations of education"; another includes interpretations of the programs of the growing number of institutions which are making a beginning on fundamental design for the education of teachers. The final chapter is a sober but eloquent plea for the creative mind in education.

The Preface and the first chapter supply the social setting which we may always count upon from Rugg. The consequences of the impact upon society of technological advances is made clear. The probable future developments in technology and their effects upon men and affairs are presented as challenges, not only to educators, but to all citizens. The effect of the rise of the masses is not specifically mentioned but is implicit throughout. The havoc wrought by the uncontrolled "practical man" and the ineffectiveness of the "creative man" in our society are presented in sharp contrasts which would doubtless be softened in a more extended volume. An able appeal for co-ordination of the efforts of "practical men" and "creative men" is included.

An important discussion in chapter ii ("The Conforming Way"), which prepares for the following discussion of the "creative way" and for the emphasis upon competent general education for the teacher, deals with new knowledges which have become available. The great advances in anthropology, modern sociology, bio-psychology, aesthetics, philosophy, and religion, with particular reference to their function in modern society, are indicated. Reference is also made to developments in history, political science, and economics. Educators, in general, were not aware of many of these important develop-

ments until fairly modern times. What is even more odd, many of the professors of liberal arts who were developing some of these materials were themselves unaware of the great importance of the materials for education.

Not all will agree with the interpretations and suggestions in the book. Philosophers, poets, top-flight scientists, and statesmen (as distinguished from politicians) will, in general, agree. Historians interested less in history and more in what history is about will find much to approve. These men heretofore have been the rear guard of culture. Rugg believes they had better play a part in the vanguard.

This volume is an excellent general statement on behalf of those who are developing the "foundations of education," and it will be of service to all in teacher education. Seminars in problems of teacher education will find that the book contains a usable quick summary of historical developments and a good indication of recent developments in the field (though the latter must be constantly supplemented from the periodical literature). They will also find it a constant stimulus to argument.

WILLIAM H. BURTON

Harvard University



HARRINGTON WELLS, *Secondary Science Education*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xii+368. \$4.50.

Secondary Science Education is, in the author's words, "designed to complement *Elementary Science Education in American Public Schools*," his previous volume. With our growing concern about a twelve-year program of science, this might be news, since Mr. Wells is the first worker in the field to go at science education with "both barrels." For such a task one needs a sound philosophy of general education, an understanding of child development, and a concern with the theory of learning. Traces of these attributes may be discerned in the two volumes, but the author fails to develop from them any unified pic-

ture of what science education is or should be.

The second of these volumes, to which this review is addressed, is organized in two parts. The first and largest, entitled "Theory and Practice," contains three chapters which might be put under theory, and seven under practice. Each of these seven deals with a specific secondary-school science, such as physics, chemistry, zoölogy, and botany.

At the outset, the book's emphasis on detailed subject matter, when things more fundamental in science education are slighted, must be challenged. Why does the author include a course outline for zoölogy—a course practically extinct in the secondary schools? And then there are *two* course outlines for botany—an offering almost as limited as zoölogy—one for regions with a "mild winter climate" and one for regions with a "severe winter climate." The author devotes a total of forty-five pages to botany and zoölogy, subjects without a future in secondary education, and only twenty-six pages to general biology, which most certainly has a future. The survey of general biology includes a three-page treatment (with stage directions) of an Arbor Day playlet. No space in this chapter is devoted to the role that the course might perform in meeting adolescent needs.

In the chapters devoted to theory the author pays passing tribute to the role of change and tentative judgment in science, but he couples this with such statements as these:

The science man either knows or he does not know. If he knows, he no longer has need for "beliefs" or ideas.

Fact is fact. . . . Students know or they do not know; the high-school science teacher knows this, and he knows he knows it.

The facts he [the science teacher] presents are so: he knows that they are so.

Has not the author heard that modern science is relativistic?

In all fairness, there should be further documentation of the weaknesses which permeate this volume, but space does not permit this. Still, I am curious how, except for the

bare listing in his "Professional Methods Bibliography," the author can develop an approach to secondary-school science-teaching without further reference to the Progressive Education Association report, *Science in General Education*, or to the Forty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, *Science Education in American Schools*.

A clue to the author's approach to secondary science may lie in statements scattered here and there in the book. For example, the author pleads for good pronunciation to save the teacher from laughter and ridicule on the lecture platform. He discusses a simple test for protein which, incidentally, elementary-school children have safely used and adds that he invariably handles all such demonstrations from the lecture platform in the secondary school because that is the only wise and safe method. Didn't the secondary-school lecture platform pass its prime with the passing of the period of gaslight, horseless carriages, bustles, and high-school courses in botany and zoölogy?

This book does make a positive contribution to science education through its second part. Here the author lists names and addresses of supply houses; sources of visual aids; and helpful magazines, pamphlets, posters, and books. Albeit annotations are lacking where they would be the most helpful—for professional and content books—yet the list is adequate and, until parts become outdated in a year or so, may be of use to both teachers and teachers in training.

HERBERT S. ZIM

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EARL C. KELLEY and MARIE I. RASEY, *Education and the Nature of Man*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. xii+210. \$3.00.

As the many pure sciences advance on a broad front, educators are on the alert for newly discovered items that may be of serv-

ice in formulating their applied science. Earl C. Kelley and Marie I. Rasey, the authors of this little trial volume, have taken up a few fundamental matters of modern science—physical, biological, psychological, and social—and have examined them to see how these matters may contribute to the improvement of our yet primitive educational science. In some cases their interpretations and conclusions are in line with those of most persons who are studying the same problems, and sometimes they are widely at variance. But in pioneer work, where the evidence is only being assembled and where the ground must be explored in every direction, error and waste motion are inevitable portions of the process. Many must search in order that a few may find.

The authors of *Education and the Nature of Man* note the discovery of science that matter and energy are one. They see that energy and spirit are both nonmaterial and, thus, of kindred nature. It appears probable, then, that matter, energy, and spirit are one. Since a human life is a seventy-year process of accumulating and dispensing energy through the many channels of living, it may follow that education is properly the process of conditioning and guiding this miraculous seventy-year flow of energy that is the human spirit to the end that life may be full, varied, worthy, and satisfying. It is a magnificent conception of education. The authors have glimpsed the possibilities and are trying to make the profession see. In this day of incredible confusion, when the state of the world is evidence that education has not yet learned how to educate, they are zealously searching for the avenue of advance.

The essays contained in this book are probably designed to make the profession aware of the possibilities and to make preliminary report of the authors' own early progress. Their treatment is too brief even to open up the problems, much less to make the possibilities understood. They mention in their Preface that the aged and failing John Dewey was able, in correspondence, to point out a number of fallacies in their ideas. If he

had had the book before him and if he had been in the fulness of his powers, they probably would have been surprised at the number of other fallacies that he might have noted.

Just as evident are the incompletions, inaccuracies, and omissions due to our modern habit of insufficient consideration before hasty publication. More than four hundred years ago, the great Vives, associate of Erasmus, wrote concerning books on education: "One who intends to become an author must read much, reflect much, write much, correct much, publish very little." And quoting Horace, "Do not hurry forward the publication of what is written; let it be delayed till the ninth year." Wisdom is a fruit of slow ripening.

The authors summarize their social thought thus: "As for Utopia, we are in favor of it. Any state of society where people live together in peace and happiness looks good" (p. 165). They believe that education can make the necessary changes in human nature. As they see it, the individual is a flow of energy, and energy is volatile and plastic beyond all things; hence human nature is highly plastic and can be shaped to the requirements of a new and wondrous social order. They believe that mankind can be made over by our educational institutions if proper relationships become as important as learning to multiply or to spell. They mention the year 2,000 A.D. as the time when the transfiguration might be sufficiently complete—if education would do its proper work.

Without optimism and dreams, there would be no zeal, nobody pushing us out of the ruts, no worthy advance. This old world needs its dreams, even when severed from wisdom. But wisdom is also good.

FRANKLIN BOBBITT

University of Chicago



OTTO POLLAK and COLLABORATORS, *Social Science and Psychotherapy for Children: Contributions of the Behavior Sciences to Practice in a Psychoanalytically Oriented*

Child Guidance Clinic. New York 22: Russell Sage Foundation, 1952. Pp. 242. \$4.00.

Mental hygiene in all its aspects has become an effective movement in the last forty years. The effect in the field of education has been to increase the sensitivity of school personnel to the individual child and to use the categories of psychopathology in the understanding of the child. On the other hand, the popularity of mental hygiene has had the effect of intensifying, in general, the concentration of psychotherapists on the individual case.

During this time the social scientists have been contributing to a growing bank of knowledge about the processes and situations which affect human behavior. There has been a great distance between those interested in the individual longitudinally and those interested in people cross-sectionally. Under the auspices and stimulation of the Russell Sage Foundation and its director, Donald Young, Otto Pollak, professor of sociology at the University of Pennsylvania, organized and directed a group of psychiatrists and psychiatric social workers connected with the Jewish Board of Guardians in a study of their work against a background of social-science knowledge. The report of the first part of this study makes up the substance of the interesting volume under review.

There is probably no better book from which to acquire an understanding of the current problems in the child-guidance field and the possible directions in which it might develop. The book does, however, by its nature, use technical terms from psychiatry, social work, psychology, sociology, and anthropology. Although it is not written to appeal to a large audience, it reads well in comparison with many technical books.

This examination of practical or applied fields in the light of the sciences which impinge upon them is a new phase of research. It has many implications for education, but perhaps education has been a forerunner in this kind of activity. For some time schools and their personnel, including the students,

have been studied by sociologists, psychologists, economists, political scientists, and others in great detail. We have even seen special fields develop, such as educational psychology and educational sociology. In spite of this activity, two questions still remain: How much of the existing fund of social-science knowledge can be, and has been, adapted to education? How long does it take to convert this fund to usable currency?

The Russell Sage Foundation has announced its intention of making studies in education and other applied fields similar to this study of psychotherapy. This volume, then, stands as a model for such studies, as well as an outstanding study of child-guidance practice and principles.

MARTIN B. LOEB

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CLIFFORD P. FROELICH and JOHN G. DARLEY, *Studying Students: Guidance Methods of Individual Analysis*. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952. Pp. xviii+412. \$4.25.

A handbook for studying students as individuals, in distinction to considering them as group subjects, fills a felt need in secondary education. Such a book is *Studying Students: Guidance Methods of Individual Analysis*, third in a new "Professional Guidance Series." Although characterized by co-author Dean John G. Darley, of the University of Minnesota Graduate School, as a revision of his popular *Testing and Counseling in the High School Guidance Program* (Science Research Associates, 1943), from the practical standpoint *Studying Students* represents almost an entirely new work. Indeed, Darley reports that he was appalled at the rapid strides in the field of guidance which rendered a revision necessary. Nevertheless, often only a single course in tests and measurements has been elected by the prospective teacher. Professor Darley contends that even in this course insufficient attention is paid to the use of observation, personal documents,

and interviews and that a need exists for incorporating such methods into the basic framework of teacher education and making explicit their relation to other analytic methods.

Moreover, other conditions in the professional preparation of teachers indicate the need for a special study of guidance methods. "The history of education reveals an increasing awareness of the necessity for understanding students as individuals," Clifford P. Froehlich, University of California, the chief reviser of *Studying Students*, truthfully maintains, and he continues, "All too often [tests and measurements courses] ignored the important role that statistical methods play in the interpretation of data derived from tests as well as nontest methods of individual analysis" (p. ix). Consequently, this book is designed as a basic text or handbook of guidance methods for such individual analysis.

Studying Students is divided into eighteen chapters. A few of the major divisions are identified as "What We Must Know about Students," "The Interview as a Fact-finding Device," "Identifying Interests," and "Appraising Personal Adjustment."

Each chapter is broken into from three to twelve provocative subunits. The headings are written in the teacher's or student's vernacular, for example, "How Is a Percentile Rank Computed?" "Why Should Guidance Workers Use Autobiographies?" "What Can Be Done for the 'Slow' Student?" This feature of the book will render it especially practical and valuable for training programs as well as for regular classroom work.

Another special feature is Froelich and Darley's emphasis, at the outset, on the necessity for thinking in terms of a "basic" set of data which are essential to almost any kind of counseling, guidance, or adjustment program. These are (1) scholastic ability, (2) past achievement, (3) aptitudes and disabilities, (4) interests, (5) personality adjustments, (6) health, and (7) family background. The chapters which follow deal with methods and techniques that can be used to

collect, record, summarize, evaluate, and interpret data in these seven areas.

In this reviewer's opinion, the inclusion of material based on successful experience, in the chapters entitled "Recording Observations," "Measuring Scholastic Ability," "Measuring Scholastic Achievement," "Sociometric Appraisal of Students," and "Determining Special Aptitudes," offers fruitful opportunities for study by prospective teachers.

Numerous charts and forms, a few well-selected references at the foot of each chapter, and a helpful index offer special inducements for using *Studying Students*. Moreover, the unusually clear and understandable style of the book should recommend it for in-service programs and workshop use.

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